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ABSTRACT

Teachers from the Martin Luther King Junior Elementary School in Ann Arbor, Michigan, completed a black vernacular inservice program during the 1979-80 academic year. This final report of the program was submitted to the superintendent of schools in compliance with a court order and is divided into four sections. The overview summarizes the educational and linguistic information available for the construction of the program and describes the five formal inservice sessions, four teacher directed seminar sessions, classroom observations, and teacher consultations that comprised the program. A report by external consultants presents the issues concerning black vernacular in an historical/contemporary setting, a description of workshop sessions on oral language assessment, a research review regarding black English and learning to read, and an evaluative report of classroom observations and teacher interviews. The Teacher Questionnaire Results section provides data regarding the teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the issues surrounding black English and learning to read as well as their perceptions of the inservice program itself. The Plaintiff Student Case Studies provide data regarding the progress of these students in reading and attendance and their use of black vernacular in school. (Author/MK)

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FINAL EVALUATION

KING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

VERNACULAR BLACK ENGLISH INSERVICE PROGRAM

Ann Arbor Public Schools

Ann Arbor, Michigan

1980

Dr. Harry Howard
Superintendent

Dr. Lee H. Hansen
Associate Superintendent
Curriculum and Instruction

Dr. Thomas Pietras
Director
Language Arts

UD021387

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
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MEMORANDUM

TO: Harry Howard, Superintendent

FROM: Lee H. Hansen and Thomas P. Pietras

RE: Summary of the Report Submitted to the Honorable Charles W. Joiner Regarding the King Vernacular Black English Inservice

DATE: August 20, 1980

In compliance with the plan submitted to Judge Joiner, there is a final evaluation report which shows that the inservice program at King School was implemented in accordance with the plan in a good-faith manner. This summary so indicates.

The total final report has four main sections: An Overview, A Report by the external consultants - Drs. Roger Shuy and William Hall, The Teacher Questionnaire Results, and The Plaintiff Students Case Studies.

The Overview summarizes the educational and linguistic information available for the construction of the inservice program plus the major topics covered in the five formal inservice sessions involving twenty hours of instruction. This section also describes the four teacher directed seminar sessions of the implementation phase as well as the classroom observations and teacher conferences conducted by Drs. Shuy and Hall. There is an explanation of their involvement in the final evaluation process. Finally, the overview presents information on the National Institute of Education - Ann Arbor Public Schools Conference regarding the issues of vernacular English in public school teaching. Appendices provide the inservice bibliography compiled for our teachers, the comments presented at the conference by three of the King teachers, as well as the purpose statement and list of participants for the conference.

The final report by Drs. Shuy and Hall presents the following main sections: setting the issues concerning vernacular black English in historical/contemporary perspective, a description of the workshop sessions conducted by them covering oral language assessment - a research review regarding black vernacular English and learning to read - teaching styles that seem to accommodate black vernacular English speaking students during classroom instruction, and an evaluative report of their classroom observations and interviews of teachers to assess the effect of the total inservice program on the teachers' teaching strategies relative to dialect speaking children. Drs. Shuy and Hall were responsible for planning and implementing half of the total inservice program.

The Teacher Questionnaire Results section provides data regarding the total King School teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read as well as data regarding their perceptions of the contribution of the inservice program to their understanding of these issues. This section describes the development and administration of the instrument as well as an explanation of the statistical analysis of the results with an interpretative discussion.

The Plaintiff Student Case Studies provide data spanning 1978-79 and 1979-80 regarding the progress of these students in reading and school attendance. There is also information on their use of black vernacular English in the school environment. The data shows that there was continual progress over this two-year period.

Overall, it appears that the inservice program contributed to teacher effectiveness in that it reinforced and expanded generally existing teacher understanding and teaching strategies relative to the issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read in school.

OVERVIEW:

THE ANN ARBOR BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH INSERVICE

Ann Arbor Public Schools
Ann Arbor, Michigan
1980

In the implementation of the inservice program, there were five sessions (The March 17, 1980 Progress Report details each inservice session) which involved twenty hours of instruction. Of the five sessions, Dr. Thomas Pietras taught the first three, whereas, Drs. Roger Shuy and William Hall taught the remaining two. The instructional component covered the following topics.

1. The role of language in society from a historical perspective.
2. The understanding of dialect as a language difference rather than a language deficit.
3. The misuse of language as a criterion for evaluating human worth.
4. Teacher expectancy of student learning potential via language attitudes.
5. Identification of the features of black vernacular English revealing that it is rule governed.
6. Understanding the difference between a dialect shift and a decoding error during students' oral reading.
7. Understanding the role of code switching relative to the principle of appropriateness regarding language as communication in a social context.
8. Understanding the role of language experience activities relative to black vernacular English speaking students.
9. Techniques of oral language assessment.
10. Review of research regarding dialect and learning to read.
11. Examples of experiences and activities from other school districts undergoing inservice programs relative to black vernacular English.
12. Presentation of research highlighting appropriate teaching behavior while teaching black vernacular English speaking students to read.

The bibliography of books, articles, dissertations, and reports complied and housed at King School for the inservice program is Exhibit A in the Appendix.

The implementation component of the inservice program began on January 30, 1980, with the first of four total faculty seminar sessions (The March 17, 1980, Progress Report details the major portion of these activities). The first one elicited from the King teachers issues in need of further clarification. They also suggested teaching strategies and/or lessons that they intended to use in their classroom instruction. Dr. William Hall and Dr. Roger Shuy received this information so that they might prepare for their forthcoming teacher observation and conference visits. Each of them spent a full scheduled day interacting with specific teachers regarding their "taking into account" black vernacular English while teaching students to read (Dr. Shuy's visit was on February 21, 1980. Dr. Hall's visit was on March 11, 1980).

Of the remaining three seminar sessions, one involved a review of current professional articles and a book which all focused on teaching reading to students who speak black vernacular English. The two others followed the visits by Drs. Shuy and Hall wherein the teachers who interacted with either of them led a discussion with the total faculty regarding the ideas, suggestions, and insights they gained from their visits. March 12, 1980, marked the last formal seminar meeting.

For the remainder of the school year, the teachers refined their previously initiated strategies and lessons based on feedback and advice from Drs. Shuy and Hall. This was also done within the context of a forthcoming final evaluation visit by the consultants.

These final visits included a 20-30 minute classroom observation and a 30-minute interview. Drs. Shuy and Hall developed criteria for the observation and a set of questions for the interview. Teachers were asked to plan an activity that used oral or written language in some way. Reading, but not silent reading, was encouraged as was a lesson concerning language or a discussion on some subject.

According to the approved inservice plan, a random sample of fifty percent of the faculty would participate in this external consultant evaluation. Using the teachers' birthdates and a random table of numbers, ten were selected. On May 16, 1980, five selectees were observed and interviewed and on June 3, 1980, the remaining five completed the process. Because Dr. Shuy had become ill and could not travel, Dr. Hall conducted both visits. However, Dr. Shuy had consulted with Dr. Hall and has co-authorized the final evaluation that they have submitted as part of this final report.

Note: As a result of the Ann Arbor Court Case, there has been considerable interest in the issues surrounding the educational implications of the court order. The National Institute of Education invited the Ann Arbor Public Schools to co-sponsor a conference on "Meeting the Educational Needs of Students Who Speak a Vernacular English in the Public School Setting." The conference was held on June 2-3, 1980, in Ann Arbor, Michigan. Provisions were made so that nine teachers and the principal from King School could attend sessions of interest to them. This augmented the districts' inservice program. Also, three teachers made short presentations regarding the impact of the inservice program on them as teachers.

EXHIBIT A

Periodical Articles

#01 Bailey, Beryl Loftman, "Toward a new perspective in Negro English dialectology, *American Speech*, October, 1965, p.171-177

#02 Cagney, Margaret, "Children's ability to understand standard English and Black dialect", *Reading Teacher*, March, 1973, p.607-610

#03 Cazden, Courtney B., "How knowledge about language helps the classroom teacher - or does it: A personal account", *The Urban Review*, Summer, 1976, p.74-90

#04 Choy, Steven J. and Dodd, David H., "Standard-English-speaking and nonstandard Hawaiian-English-speaking children: comprehension of both dialects and teacher's evaluations", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol.68, No.2, 1976, p.184-193

#05 Copple, Carol E. and Suci, George J., "The comparative ease of processing standard English and Black non-standard English by lower-class Black children", *Child Development*, Vol.45, 1974, p.1048-1053

#06 Cramer, Ronald L., "Dialectology - a case for language experience", *Reading Teacher*, October, 1971, p.33-40

#07 Dillard, J. L., "The English teacher and the language of the newly integrated student", *Teacher's College Record*, November, 1967, p.115-120

#08 Dillard, J. L., "How to tell the bandits from the good guys or, what dialect to teach?", *The Florida Fl Reporter*, Spring/Summer, 1969, p.84-85+

#09 Dillard, J. L., Review of book by Joan Baratz and Roger W. Shuy, *Teaching Black children to read*, *College English*, 1969, p.733-736

#10 Engle, Patricia Lee, "Language medium in early school years for minority language groups", *Review of Educational Research*, Spring, 1975, p.283-325

#11 Goodman, Kenneth S. and Buck, Catherine, "Dialect barriers to reading comprehension revisited", *Reading Teacher*, October, 1973, p.6-12

#12 Goodman, Yetta M. and Sims, Rudine, "Whose dialect for beginning readers?", Elementary English, Vol. 51, No. 6, 1974, p.837-841

#13 Hockman, Carol H., "Black dialect reading tests in the urban elementary school", Reading Teacher, March, 1973, p.581-585

#14 Hoover, Mary Rhodes, "Characteristics of Black schools at grade level: A description", Reading Teacher, April, 1978, p.757-762

#15 Kachuck, Beatrice Levy, "Black English and reading: Research issues", Education and Urban Society, May, 1978, p.385-397

#16 Kachuck, Beatrice Levy, "Dialect in the language of inner-city children", Elementary School Journal, November, 1975, p.104-112

#17 Lamberg, Walter J., "Assessment of oral reading which exhibits dialect and language differences", Journal of Reading, April, 1979, p.609-619

#18 Rystrom, Richard, "Dialect training and reading: A further look", Reading Research Quarterly, Summer, 1970, p.581-599

#19 Smitherman, Geneva, Three different columns written by Smitherman under the title of "Soul 'n Style". From issues of English Journal.

#20 Somervill, Mary Ann, "Dialect and reading: A review of alternative solutions", Review of Educational Research, Spring, 1975, p.247-262

#21 Williams, Frederick, Whitehead, Jack L. and Miller, Leslie, "Relations between language attitudes and teacher expectancy", American Educational Research Journal, Spring, 1972, p.263-277

#22 Yee, Albert H., "Source and direction of casual influence in teacher-pupil relationships", Journal of Educational Psychology, 1968, p.275-282

#40 Cohen, S. Alan and Kornfeld, "Oral vocabulary and beginning reading in disadvantaged Black children," Reading Teacher, October, 1970, p. 33-38

#41 Gay, Judy and Tweney, "Comprehension and production of standard and Black English by lower-class Black children", *Developmental Psychology*, May, 1976, p.262-268

#42 Hall, Vernon C. and Turner, Ralph R., "The validity of the 'different language exploration' for poor scholastic performance by Black students", *Review of Educational Research*, Winter, 1974, p.69-81

#43 Liv, Stella S.F., "An investigation of oral reading miscues made by nonstandard dialect speaking Black children", *Reading Research Quarterly*, Winter, 1975-1976, p.193-197

#44 Ramsey, Imogene, "A comparison of first-grade Negro dialect speakers' comprehension of standard English and Negro dialect", *Elementary English*, May, 1972, p.688-696

#45 Simons, Herbert D., "Black dialect phonology and word recognition", *Journal of Educational Research*, October, 1974, p.64-70

#46 Pietras, Thomas P. "Teaching As a Linguistic Process in a Cultural Setting." *The Clearinghouse*, Vol. 53, No. 4, December, 1979.

#47 Hall, Wm. S. and Guthrie, Larry R. *On The Dialect Question and Reading*, Technical Report No. 121, N.I.E., Cambridge, Mass: Bolt Beranck and Newman Inc., 1979.

Papers, Research Reports and Dissertations

#23 DiStefano, Johanna S., "Register-social variation in language: Implications for teaching reading to ghetto Black children", Paper presented at the annual convention of the International Reading Association, Atlantic City, April 19-23, 1971. 10 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 071 039)

#24 Gantt, Walter N. and Wilson, Robert M., "Syntactical speech patterns of Black children from a depressed urban area: Educators look at linguistic findings", Unpublished research study, 1972. 27 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 070 079)

#25 Gearhart, Maryl and William S. Hall, *Internal state words: Cultural and situational variation in vocabulary usage*, *Technical report No.115*, Center for the Study of Reading, National Institute of Education, 1979.

#26 Hoover, Mary Rhodes and others., "An experiment in teaching reading to bidialectal kindergarten children", Research and Development Memorandum No.102, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1973. 33p. (ERIC Document No. ED 074 465)

#27 Johnson, Kenneth R., Simons, Herbert D., *Black children's reading of dialect and standard texts*. *Final report*. National Center for Educational Research and Development, U.S.Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1973. 53 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 076 978)

#28 Labov, William and Cohen, Paul, "Systematic Relations of standard and non-standard rules in the grammars of Negro speakers", Paper presented at the 7th Project Literacy Conference, Cambridge, Massachusetts, May 25, 1967, 19 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 016 946)

#29 Labov, William, Cohen, Paul and Robins, Clarence, *A preliminary study of the structure of English used by Negro and Puerto Rican speakers in New York City*", Cooperative Research Project No.3091, Columbia University, 1965, 63 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 003 819)

#30 Labov, William, Cohen, Paul, Robins, Clarence and Lewis, John, *A study of the nonstandard English of Negro and Puerta Rican speakers in New York City*. *Volume I: Phonological and grammatical analysis*, Cooperative Research Project No.3288, Columbia University, 1968. 397 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 028 423) (This item contains 3 booklets to be read consecutively.)

#31 Labov, William, Cohen, Paul, Robins, Clarence and Lewis, John. A study of the nonstandard English of Negro and Puerta Rican speakers in New York City. Volume II: The use of language in the speech community. Cooperative Research Project No. 3288, Columbia University, 1968. 366 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 028 424) (This item contains 3 booklets to be read consecutively.)

#32 Mathewson, Grover C., "Children's responses to reading and hearing standard English and nonstandard dialect stories: A study of evaluation and comprehension", Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Feb. 25 - March 1, 1973. 11 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 078 383)

#33 Meissner, Judith A., "The comprehension and communication of relational concepts by inner-city children", Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, February, 1973. 14 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 074 197)

#34 Pietras, Thomas P., "Teacher expectancy via language attitudes: Pygmalion from a sociolinguistic point of view", Paper presented at Linguistic Association of the Southwest Conference, L.S.U., Baton Rouge, Louisiana, November 10-12, 1977. 10 p.

#35 Pietras, Thomas P., "Teachers' verbal and nonverbal behavior as indices of teacher expectancy", Paper presented at Annual meeting, American Educational Research Association, Toronto, Ontario, March 27-31, 1978. 14 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 156 627)

#36 Smitherman, Geneva, "The power of the rap: The Black idiom and the new Black poetry", Excerpt from Smitherman's book The Black idiom: Soul and style, 1973. 22 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 084 337)

#37 Strand, Corrinne Marie Erickson, "Bidialectalism and learning to read, Dissertation, University of Michigan, 1979. 90 p.

#38 Stryker, David, Editor, New trends in English education: Selected addresses delivered at the Conference on English Education, March 31 - April 2, 1966, National Council of Teachers of English. 93 p. (ERIC Document No. ED 070 101)

#39 Walden, James, Editor. Oral Language and reading: Papers collected from the 1967 Spring Institutes on the Elementary Language Arts. National Council of Teachers of English, 1969. 117 p. (ERIC Document No. 071 099)

Commercially produced materials designed for teacher education

#46 Bronzo, Mary Lee, Congeni, Ann, Kaunelis, Marija, An introduction to Black nonstandard English for teachers, University of Michigan, 1975. 56p. 2 copies

#47 Hess, Karen, Maxwell, John C., and Long, Barbara K., Dialects and dialect learning. CEMREL,1974. Published by National Council of Teachers of English. Contains 4 volumes, 4 cassette tapes, plus a leader's manual. This is a self-teaching course consisting of the 4 programmed instruction units listed below.

#47A Program I: About dialects; a program of basic information on American regional and social dialects.

#47B Program II: Broad phonetic transcription; a program for learning to record speech sounds. (Includes audio cassette tape.)

#47C Program III: Analyzing nonstandard dialects; a program describing some major features of nonstandard dialects with a supplement on nonstandard Spanish-American dialects. (Includes an audio cassette tape.)

#47D Program IV: Curriculum decisions; a program describing basic issues involved in teaching a standard English. (Includes 2 audio cassette tapes.)

#47E Leader's Manual.

#48 Dunaway, David, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, Project STRIDE.

#49 Christian, Donna and Wolfram, Watt, Knowledge Interpretation Program: Linguistic diversity and educational equity, Center for Applied Linguistics. Consists of the five booklets listed below.

#49A Booklet 1 - Introduction to dialect study

#49B Booklet 2 - Exploring dialects

#49C Booklet 3 - Speech pathology

#49D Booklet 4 - Language differences and reading

#49E Booklet 5 - Dialect diversity and language arts

Books

#50 Bryen, Diane N., Hartman, Cheryl, Tait, Pearl, Variant English: An introduction to language variation. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1978. 262 p.
Includes audio cassette tape to be used with Chapters 1, 2 and 6.

#51 Abrahams, R. and Troike, R., Language and Cultural Diversity in American Education. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972.

#52 Burling, Robbins, English in Black and White. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973.

#53 Laffey, James and Shuy, Roger, Language Differences: Do They Interfere? International Reading Association, 1973.

#54 Postman, Neil and Weingartner, Charles, Linguistics: A Revolution in Teaching. Delta Book (paperback), 1966.

#55 Shuy, Roger, Discovering American Dialects. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

October 17, 1979
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Inservice Workshop

Martin Luther King School

Ann Arbor, Michigan

Final Report

1 August 1980

by

William S. Hall
University of Illinois

Roger W. Shuy
Georgetown University
The Center for Applied Linguistics

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Abstract

This report consists of four sections. The first sets the issues concerning Vernacular Black English (VBE) in time, giving a brief account of the social and academic atmosphere under which research in this area has been conducted since the 1960's. The second and third sections describe the content of the workshops given for the staff at King School in Ann Arbor, Michigan in 1980. The content of these workshops included the assessment of children's oral language ability, a review of research on the relationship of Vernacular Black English and reading, and different teaching styles that attempt to accommodate to children's non-standard patterns of language use. The fourth section is a report of classroom observations and interviews with teachers who had attended workshops, conducted after the workshops to assess their effect on teaching styles and strategies relating to dialect-speaking children.

The first section sets the study of Vernacular Black English in perspective by going back to the first real involvement of linguistic and educational researchers with this subject in the 1960's. It highlights some of the aspects of that period of research that might be easier, or at least more comfortable, to forget: the disparity between the assumptions about language held by linguists and those held by educators or by the general public, the criticism with which early research was met on almost every side--from conservatives fighting to preserve "good English," from Blacks, from other linguists; the occasional animosity and less-than-scholarly disagreements among scholars; the lack

of applicable methods from language pedagogy; and the dilemma of commercial publishers, trying to be "relevant" without running the risk of losing money or being charged with racism. It traces the course of research on VBE through the period of relative neglect during the 1970's to the present, pointing out that even now, almost all the research done on VBE has been in terms of form rather than in terms of systematic functional differences, even though the latter may be of far greater educational significance than the surface features of form to which so much attention has been devoted.

The goal in section 2 was to develop some method that would enable the teachers in the Martin Luther King School to validly assess the oral language ability of their students.

The first problem is lack of existing tests that would fulfill this purpose. To a large extent this lack can be traced back to wrong assumptions in the field of testing, especially the following three: (1) that oral language can be measured by paper/pencil tests, (2) that forms of oral language (pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar) are the best indicators of (oral) language ability, and (3) that language assessment can be made outside of the natural contexts where language is used.

The first step in correcting these mistakes is to establish that oral language competence cannot be defined in terms of form (pronunciation or grammar) alone, but is basically a matter of how well persons use the forms of language to accomplish certain ends, e.g. requesting permission or information, promising, seeking clarification, interrupting, keeping the floor, etc. Current tests do not measure such abilities.

Measuring such abilities would have to be done by teachers on an individual and holistic basis. It is specifically suggested that teachers use tape recordings of the children's speech collected in the process of a dialogue chaining task, in which two pupils use a tape-recorder to exchange information and ideas on an assigned joint project. This would provide a speech sample that is both extensive in length, and representative of fairly natural use of language by the child.

In the first part of section 3, there is a review of research on Vernacular Black English and reading. Various studies have tried to determine the extent to which differences in phonology, grammar, or vocabulary and content might act as a source of educational difficulties for dialect speakers. However, even if these studies had established the existance of a correlation between some dialect feature and educational difficulty--which has generally not been the case--it would not be valid to assume that the dialect feature in question is actually a cause of interference. In addition, most of the research reviewed involved experiments in test-like situations; it cannot be assumed (as it usually has been) that children's language ability and subtle dialect differences can be accurately assessed under such conditions.

Future directions for research are suggested, which would take into consideration the influence of situation and context. Such research would focus on two basic areas: structure and content, and patterns of language use and function. The hope is that researchers investigating the ethnography of communication will be able to identify the subtle but important cultural and situational differences in language function and use which relate to reading performance, and specify for educators actual sources of miscommunication in the educational experience of dialect speakers. This will enable teachers to be more sensitive to the cultural differences that influence teaching and learning, and to modify the ways in which they interact with dialect-speaking students to better accommodate them, not only in actual instructional methods, but in other ways as well.

Part II of Section 3 gives extensive examples of interactions of teachers with their students. The first set of examples illustrates possible types of conflict between the speech of dialect-speaking children and the patterns of language required by the school, and ways in which teachers can accommodate to the children's speech patterns. The second group of examples illustrates six different teaching styles--Vocabulary Emphasis, Decoding Emphasis, Standard Pronunciation Emphasis, the White Liberal Approach, the Black Artful Approach, and the Interrupting Approach--and some data indicating the relative success of these teaching styles in terms of the children's reading achievement.

The fourth section reports the results of observations and interviews with a random sample of teachers at King School, conducted to assess the response of the teachers to the workshops in terms of their actual teaching practice. There is also a discussion of the consequences for the pupils involved, in light of what is known about the effects of teacher attitudes and strategies on children who speak nonstandard dialects.

Section I

Vernacular Black English:

Setting the Issues in Time*

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The study of language variation suffers a very peculiar fate. Almost everyone has a deep interest in the differences in words, pronunciations, grammar and style which set us off from each other in our communication but, at the same time, we have an inordinate ability to suspend our belief that such differences exist. It appears to be the same principle which is at work in the tasks of both reading and listening: we edit out the less significant aspects of the communication or simply relegate them to the realm of connotation. But we are vaguely aware of these differences nonetheless, if not as language _per se_, at least as some sort of effect. Throughout written history we have records of such variation, from the pronunciation of _shibboleth_ in the Old Testament to the semiphonetic transcription of speech in novels, biographies and stories. Most people have no metalanguage for variation, whether it is based on geographical, sex, stylistic, social, occupational, racial, or age differences. We tend to call it all by a very few, very vague and general terms: _twang_, _jargon_, _gutteral_, _brogue_, _nasal_, etc.

The study of _regional_ variation in speech has the oldest tradition in this country. Linguists and philologists have, of course, been interested in language change over time as well but primarily over long periods of time, not, say, between living generations.

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* NIE seminar on Black English, September 27, 1979

There were many things wrong with the study of English language variation in this country two decades ago when the germination of a new interest in Black English was started. There were many things we had to learn even in order to study Black English much less to analyze, explain or devise pedagogical strategies related to it.

It is easy to forget exactly how things were at an earlier stage of our development. To go back and reexamine these stages is always a humbling experience for it reveals portions of our incomplete understandings, our developing ideas and our biasses that we, in later years, prefer to forget.

It is easy to forget that the early forays into Black English study were not motivated by high-powered linguistic objectivity or science. Instead, these early studies were motivated by problems of the classroom. As is so often the case, the problem born of the classroom took several years to find nourishment from the disciplines which could help feed it (psychology, anthropology, linguistic, sociology). And, until proper attention could be given, it developed several dangerous symptoms caused by an improper diet of homemade nourishment. Rumors developed that children were nonverbal, that they had no communicative exchanges with their parents, that they had a miniscule vocabulary and that they were crushed by noise in the home, a multitude of siblings, and some sort of inordinate squalor. Their language was considered unsystematic and haphazard and they were thought to reflect cognitive deficits in the failure of their oral language to match that of their middle class teachers. If ever there was a field in need of research, it was this one.

It is easy to forget that the research that was attempted was met with criticism on almost every side. Educators got to the problem first, offering suggestions for altering the speech of Black children to match classroom expectations (Golden, 1965). Later this was to be attacked as wiping out the child's culture. Equally serious was the attack by linguists that the teachers had not analyzed the language accurately (or at all) and had stressed the teaching of insignificant features rather than crucial ones. It took several years, but an analysis of Vernacular Black English was gradually carried out, making use of Black scholars whenever possible, but usually by Whites alone. Seminal studies were done in New York (by William Labov, Paul Cohen, Clarence Robbins, and K. D. Lewis, 1965), in Detroit (by Roger Shuy, Walt Wolfram, and William Riley, 1968), in Washington (by Ralph Fasold, 1972), and in Los Angeles (by Stanley Legum and Berdan, 1971). Generalizations about the findings of these studies have been made by Fasold and Wolfram (1970) in relatively non-technical language. These studies have also been subjected to attack, frequently by Black scholars who can see error in the analysis or who object to the fact that they were done, in the main, by Whites. Their attack frequently asserts that Whites can never know how Black English really works, that this is just another case of Whites trying to belittle or hold back Blacks by calling attention to weakness rather than strength, that not all Blacks talk that way, or that the White analysts have improper or self-serving motives for studying (exploiting) Blacks. Conservative school people have attacked such studies as permissive and generally contributing to the "anything goes" philosophy which presumably characterizes linguists anyway. Lastly, linguists have attacked each other's analysis for various reasons (quite predictably in a field which fosters such behavior).

It is easy to forget that language pedagogy had relatively little to offer which was directly related to the systematic differences among Black speakers. Learning by pattern drill was prominent in foreign language pedagogy in the sixties. The contrastive approach to learning was commonly accepted in learning a second language. But learning a second dialect, it soon became clear, was not the same thing as learning a second language. For one thing, there was little or no confusion in comprehension from a standard to a vernacular version of the same language. The concept of interference, then, had to be redefined in a cross-dialectal setting. (Today, Wolfram and Christian suggest the term influence to apply to cross-dialect difference rather than interference, which is preserved, then, in its original sense.) The result of the early efforts to produce materials to teach Standard English to Vernacular Black English speakers was largely compendiums of rather dull and useless drills which were based either on the assumption that foreign language pedagogy was directly applicable to Vernacular Black English or on the more traditional assumption of English and language arts instruction that bad speech should simply be eradicated.

It is also easy to forget that one reason why we have so few, if any, sound teaching materials related to Vernacular Black English is that commercial publishers simply could not afford to gamble that their products were scientifically accurate, politically expedient or economically feasible. Efforts at being "relevant," a catchword in the sixties, were heavily motivated by the potential for profit. This might not be so severe a criticism of commercial publishers if we only stop and realize that they are, indeed, commercial. Their business is to make a profit and if the potential product will not sell or if it will probably bring charges of racism down on the producer, the publishers would worry. And worry they did. Very few commercial products ever reached the public and these were of uneven quality at best. One notable set of junior high oral language materials, English Now,[1] which grew out of the research of the Urban Language Study at the Center for Applied Linguistics, was withdrawn from the market by the publisher once criticisms, just or unjust, were made to the publisher.

Many other sets of materials were developed by school systems, usually by a teacher team during the summer vacation period. In 1970 the U. S. Office of Education funded the Center for Applied Linguistics to collect, analyze, and evaluate extant materials at that time. A careful search of fugitive and public materials revealed a total of fourteen sets of primary (K-6) materials dealing with Vernacular Black English, nine sets of secondary materials (7-12) and six sets of adult materials.[2] Most packages consisted of a teacher's manual (about half of the programs were comprised of this only). Only six of the programs contained tapes. If one were to try to locate these materials today, one would encounter great difficulty in determining how to do so.

It is easy to forget that relatively little new research has been carried out since 1970 and that few new programs have been developed since that time. To be sure, some research has come forth but, by comparison to the golden years of the sixties, the outgrowth has been meagre. It is not as easy to forget why such a turnabout took place. Most of the early work, as noted before, was done by White researchers. Blacks became naturally suspicious of this situation and began to demand representation on and, eventually, control of research which involved their race. Some White researchers agreed with this turn of events and changed their own research interests to other matters or to training Black scholars to do this type of work. For a combination of reasons, however, the quantity of research in Vernacular Black English decreased considerably in the seventies. Part of the reason may well be a general discouragement at the possibility of bringing about change in the schools with such research.

The major thrust of the work of linguists who pursue the question of the mismatch of spoken language and beginning reading was to focus on grammatical, not phonological interference. Melmed's research, as well as that of Rystrom,[3] Tentel and Kennedy,[4] and Osterberg[5] tend to be elaborate rejections of positions never held, at least not by linguists.

That some of the research on dialect interference in reading is flawed has been pointed out by Simons[6] and Venezky.[7] The usual educational research flaws of sample size and comparability are shared by the study of Schaaf[8] and Sims[9] neither of whom had an adequate number of subjects nor comparable reading materials across dialects. Both studies focused on grammatical interference rather than phonological but problems arose when decisions had to be made regarding the adequacy of the language representation in the text. Sociolinguists have been careful to point out that dialect variation is more a continuum than a polarity and that speakers of one dialect may differ from those of another dialect in such minute matters as the frequency of occurrence of a particular feature more than in its categorical presence or absence. The dialect reader projects in the early seventies proved little or nothing largely because they focused only on the forms of language, not on the functions.

It appears that language functions, unlike phonology and grammar, are developmental almost throughout one's life. Few adults, for example, ever become proficient at the language function of condoling. For the sake of survival, children learn how to interrupt appropriately rather early. They learn that interruption is complex and often asymetrical (teachers can interrupt children rather blatantly but children must develop sophisticated strategies for interrupting teachers). One also learns how to avoid being interrupted, how to get or avoid a turn in talking, how to refuse, how to clarify, even how to obfuscate with dignity. What may be considered rudeness may be only an imperfectly developed sense of interruption skills. It would seem critical for teachers to be able to distinguish between these matters. Dialect influence from functional language remains to be seriously explored but offers exciting possibilities in the future.

It is also easy to forget that the great controversey surrounding the potential effect of Vernacular Black English on the acquisition of reading skills was never clearly resolved. For a brief while it was assumed that the generally accepted position of reading specialists that phonology plays a central role in early decoding provided a clue to the potential interference of Vernacular Black English on early reading.

J. Paul Melmed concluded that while the Black readers contrasted to the Whites in auditory discrimination and production of these diagnostic pronunciations, they comprehended them equally well in both oral and silent reading. This research, then, rejects the hypothesis that phonological interference affects learning to read. As Simons points out, Melmed's study is flawed in several ways,[10] but particularly interesting to the linguist is the fact that phonological interference was even suggested. To the linguist, the English spelling system is complicated but highly regular.

It is easy to forget that many of the assumptions which undergird the research and development in Vernacular Black English are somewhat foreign to the schools. For one thing, English education has been built on the notion that there is a marked polarity between good English and bad English. Even though almost two decades have passed since Martin Joos' The Five Clocks was published by the NCTE, most teachers do not understand the concepts of variability, the continuum and context. Most tend to believe that standard is invariant, context free and a polarity. They do not understand that all language varies, including standard language, that the acquisition of standardness involves passing through stages in the acquisition of that standardness (though William Labov explained this principle in an NCTE publication in

1965) and that there are many contexts of life which call for the appropriate use of various forms of English, not just the standard form.

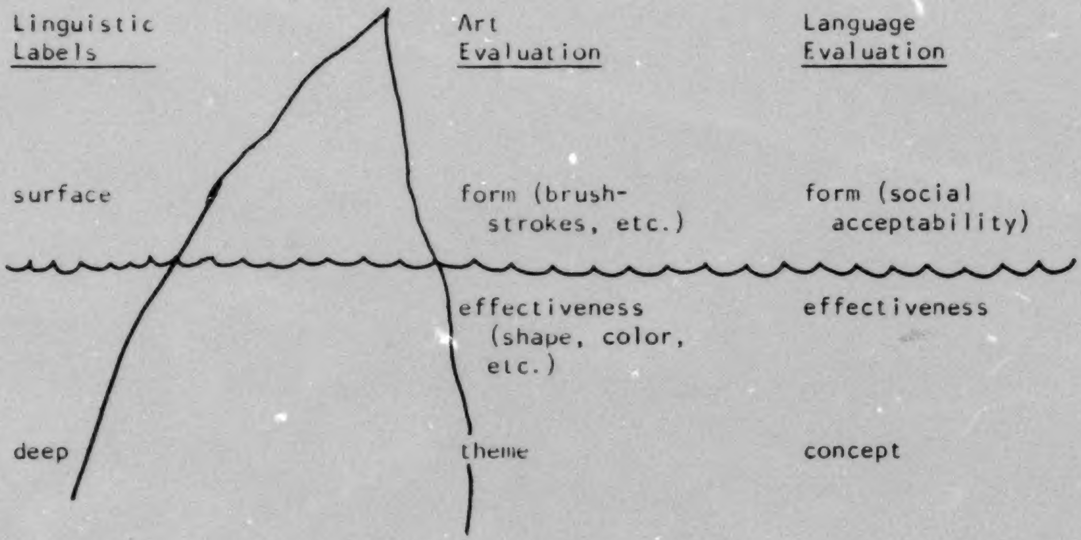
Another assumption undergirding research and development in Vernacular Black English is that it is useful to know, descriptively, the language of the learners in some detail at the beginning of their educational programs. This involves studying their speech, regardless of its correctness, as a means of starting with them where they are. Since the schools abhor incorrectness of any kind, it is difficult for them to tolerate such incorrectness as part of the learning process. Thus the contrastive approach to learning a second dialect, involving as it did the use of both vernacular and standard in the classroom, was frowned upon by parents and educators alike. And when it was suggested that the principle of beginning with children where they are might also be applicable to the teaching of reading, the public got up in arms very quickly. "The very idea," they cried, "of teaching children to speak Vernacular Black English in order to read it." It mattered little that nobody had ever suggested such a program. The public believed what it wanted to believe and the research was stifled in its beginning.

It is easy to forget that research and development in Vernacular Black English is not easy for the public to understand. Linguists have known for years what it is like to deal with a subject, language, which is so invisible to the general public that it cannot be seen or understood. When I was awarded a contract by USOE to study Detroit speech in 1966, I was read into the Congressional Record as a person who was wasting $120,000 of the taxpayers' money to study ain't. Senator Proxmire, of course, has enjoyed this game of preying on scholarly activity, misrepresenting it to make it appear ludicrous and then by capitalizing on the basic anti-intellectualism of his constitutents to get stronger voter support. Some members of the public have different motivations. When Webster's Third New International Dictionary was published, many were the self-proclaimed experts in lexicography who purported to know more than the learned staff of that enterprise. More recently we have become infested with the likes of Edwin Newman, the newscaster, who proclaims Truth about language without benefit of professional training in that subject. In short, everyone is an expert in linguistics. Linguists have become accustomed to this plight. Now education appears to be facing the same fate. The general public now also expresses its expertise willingly and easily about curriculum, materials, teaching, administration, and other matters without benefit of professional training.

It is easy to forget that much of the progress in the development of basic and applied research in Vernacular Black English in the past two decades was achieved at some personal cost. Perhaps because the language and pedagogy issue grew out of a social concern which was born of great guilt, the moral issues involved were often imprecise. Some of the early urban research, for example, saw fit to surreptitiously tape-record Black children. As a field procedure, this issue was subject to considerable discussion. On many occasions it appeared that there was nothing like willingness to accept even the potential sincerity of the motives of the research or group whose position was attacked. The issue has made enemies irrationally, probably because of the heavily charged emotions involved. It did not seem reasonable to those who advocated bidialectalism, for example, that advocates of the eradication position might be acting sincerely toward the solution of a problem. Nor did it occur to eradicationists that bidialectalists might be acting with honestly motivated integrity. Eventually a third position, one which defied a neat lable but could have been symbolized as the "teach Whites to improve their attitude" camp, pictured bidialectionists as racist opportunists whose actions were motivated by wilful ignorance and crass personal gain (Sledd, 1969). Otherwise respectable scholars resorted to tactics of namecalling, innuendo, wrenching from context, doctored quotations and selective reading in the attacks on presumably opposing positions (Sledd, 1972). As a result of this animosity, which was not always between Blacks and Whites, a number of researchers decided to do other things and many of the research issues remained unresolved. This "holier-than-thou" period had its effect on work done in the early and mid seventies and left a vacuum at the very time when acceleration might have been expected.

It is easy to forget that all of the work done on Vernacular Black English in the past two decades was carried out in the context of a surface-level evaluation system. It is odd that a sociolinguist would have to point out that the variability in Vernacular Black English does not operate at the concept level or even at the efficiency level. Borrowing the metaphor of deep and surface structure from linguistics, we can view Vernacular Black

English variability at the level of surface social acceptability. This does not make it unimportant but it does set this variability in a realistic framework. The familiar iceberg may well serve to illustrate:


Linguistic Labels
Art Evaluation
Language Evaluation
surface
form (brush-strokes, etc.)
form (social acceptability)
effectiveness (shape, color, etc.)
effectiveness
deep
theme
concept

Just as one would not evaluate a work of art strictly from its surface forms, so one should not evaluate VBE speaking or writing solely from its surface social acceptability. However obvious this principle may be, it is not frequently practiced in our school evaluation systems. We tend to assess that which we can see and count--surface forms. In writing this means punctuation, mechanics and spelling. In speech, it means non-verb agreement and past tense marker accuracy. Neither of these deals with the conceptual or effectiveness levels of evaluation, but rather, only surface social acceptability. This is not to say that such acceptability is trivial (this is why the warning seems ironic from the mouth of a sociolinguist) but only that such evaluation is only one of three, the other two of which are actually more central to the function of the communication. Since Vernacular Black English features are at the form, surface level of language, they are frequently given undue significance in the evaluation system. That is, to many it may seem far better to have a bad concept and good form than to have a good concept with bad form. This principle plagues all of educational evaluation and it is unfortunate that Vernacular Black English forms are so exaggerated by it.

Conclusion

In short, the false assumptions about Vernacular Black English held by the public over the years include the following:

1. That Vernacular Black English is bad English and that it is absurd to think one needs to study it or to do anything besides wipe it out.
2. That no special expertise or attitudes are necessary to teach children who speak Vernacular Black English.
3. That classrooms consist of homogenous populations in which the known research information applies equally across the board.
4. That the training in teaching and education acquired by teachers and administrators is inferior to that training in linguistics, psychology or anthropology acquired by the researchers.
5. That anyone can teach but that only the particularly intelligent and talented can research.
6. That knowledge of the facts of language will, in themselves, suffice to bring about changes in classroom practice.

Now, some twenty years after the first glimmer of interest in Vernacular Black English, we find outselves about where we were at the beginning of the study. We have done considerable research on the phonological, lexical, and grammatical forms of Vernacular Black English but little or no research on systematic functional differences. We have done a rather poor job of developing teaching materials, curricula and teacher education programs (else there would have been no need for the Ann Arbor decision). We have tried, for a while, to ignore the issue and hope that it would go away but now, with the Ann Arbor case, we are brought back to a stark reality once again and, the words of T. S. Eliot seem appropriate:

> We shall not cease from exploration
> And the end of our exploring
> Will be to arrive where we started
> And know the place for the first time.[10]

Those of us who have worked in this vineyard in the past two decades have been waiting a long time for the grapes to ripen. We feel a distinct sense of *déjà vu* as the new generation is educated into the issues we grappled with so fervently in the sixties. In truth, many of us thought the pedagogical issue of Vernacular Black English was all but dead, buried by the conservatism of the seventies. But here it is, back again, bigger than life. Welcome back to the pedagogical arena, Vernacular Black English! This time I hope we do better by you.

Notes

[1] Irwin Feigenbaum, English Now, New York, New Century, 1969.

[2] R. W. Shuy, I Feigenbaum, and A. Grognet, Sociolinguistic Theory, Materials and Training Programs, Washington, D.C., CAL, 1970.

[3] Richard Rystrom, "Dialect Training and Reading: A Further Look," Reading Research Quarterly V. (Summer, 1970), pp. 581-599.

[4] Victor Rentel and J. Kennedy, "Effects of Pattern Drill on the Phonology, Syntax and Reading Achievement fo Rural Applachian Children." American Educational Research Journal, 9(1972), pp. 87-100.

[5] T. Osterberg, Bilingualism and the First School Language. Umea, Sweden, Vastenbottens Togckeri AB, 1961.

[6] H. D. Simons, "Black Dialectal Reading Interference: A Review and Analysis of the Research Evidence." University of California, mimeo, n.d. pp. 16-17.

[7] Richard L. Venezky, "Non-standard Language and Reading," Working Paper no. 43, Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, Madison, Wisconsin. 1970, 12.

[8] E. Schaaf. "A Study of Black English Syntax and Reading Comprehension." Unpublished master's thesis, University of California, Berkeley, 1971.

[9] Rudine Sims, "A Psycholinguistic Description of Miscues Created by Selected Young Readers During Oral Reading of Text in Black Dialect and Standard English," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University, Detroit, 1972.

[10] Jay Paul Melmed. Black English Phonology: The Question of Reading Interference. Monographs of Language - Behavior Research Laboratory. No. 1, University of California, Berkeley, 1971.

[11] Herbert D. Simons, "Black Dialect and Reading Interference: A Review and Analysis of the Research Evidence," University of California, mimeo, n.d

Section 2

Workshop: Ann Arbor, Michigan

Approaches to Oral Language Assessment

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The assessment of oral language in the schools has been hampered by a number of factors. One comes from the field of testing itself in which several wrong assumptions have been prominent, including the following three:

1. Oral language can be measured by paper/pencil tests.
2. The forms of oral language (pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar) are the best indicators of language ability.
3. Language assessment can be made outside of the natural contexts where language is used.

As it turns out, there are very few widely used measures of native oral language ability and practically none for the purposes of determining the extent to which a vernacular speaker of English differs from the school-expected norms. The problem which this workshop addressed was: "How can the Ann Arbor schools best assess the oral language ability of its students?"

When a school system wants to carry out a task like this, it usually looks to the available talent bank and selects the instrument or materials best suited to the job. If a useful bank of such tests existed, my job would have been simply to help the schools pick the one that best suits their needs. Such a bank does not exist, however; at least, not with adequate quality. One focus of my workshop, then, was to convince the teachers that it would be fruitless to follow the usual procedure of selecting the best of the available bank of tests. There simply is no best and there isn't very much of a bank.

A second focus, made particularly apparent by the circumstances surrounding this case, was on what other schools are trying to do about the same problem. It became clear, early on, that the traditional consultant's role was not to be followed in Ann Arbor. The usual role is to share with practitioners the theory and research relevant to the topic which they might not be aware of. If the consultant's work is done effectively and without intimidation, this theory and research can then be applied to the knowledge that practitioners have but which consultants might not be aware of. Both "sides" can then be optimally efficient. Perhaps because of the litigation involved, some leaders among these teachers made it clear that they were not interested in theory or research. They wanted, instead, to have the answers to the issue raised by the Court. They wanted only to know how to teach the litigant children more effectively. Of course, research and theory could be useful in such a situation but if these teachers do not believe it will be useful, it probably won't be.

The only school system that I was aware of which is taking an active role in addressing this question with some effectiveness was the Oral Language Project in one school in the Los Angeles Unified School District. Since I have been working closely with that school, I decided to approach the Ann Arbor workshop from the perspective of what was going on in other similar situations. (Since that time, I have learned that the San Diego Unified School District also has a similar Oral Language Program for minority children and that my approach also represents that situation.)

In order to get to the question of how the Ann Arbor schools can actually best assess the oral language competence of minority children, then, it was first necessary to determine what communicative competence means and to help the teachers determine what aspects of that language competence most need to be assessed. Then, and only then, could we move to methods of doing it. My approach was one of common sense needs assessment rather than of theory to practice. Of course, my approach was to produce the same ultimate effect, but to do so without the authoritarianism of the usual consultant role. The three steps in this workshop will be summarized briefly as follows:

1. What is Oral Language Competence?

For this question, I simply described how the Los Angeles schools addressed this question. They determined that what mattered most in language ability was the skill in "getting things done" with speech. How one got things done was, in the long run, less crucial than that one did it. What this means, essentially, is that function matters more than form. Or, put in the traditional dictum of architecture, form follows function. The teachers admitted that in art and music, theme is most important and that brush strokes or notes, however important they may be, are less important for valuing the painting or song. From the perspective of speech, having something to say mattered cognitively and how one said it mattered socially. The Los Angeles teachers believed that both the cognitive and the social were important but that a poor idea expressed well was worse than a good idea expressed poorly. They ultimately concluded that it is not appropriate to make value judgments about students based on form alone.

The answer to the search for oral language competence, then, can be visualized as follows:

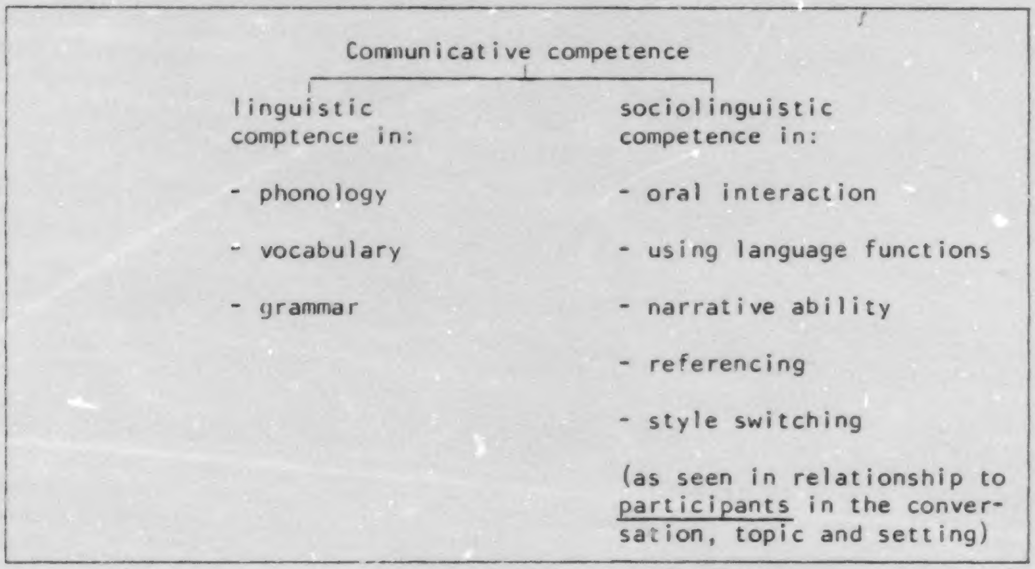
Communicative competence
linguistic comptence in:
- phonology
- vocabulary
- grammar
sociolinguistic competence in:
- oral interaction
- using language functions
- narrative ability
- referencing
- style switching
(as seen in relationship to participants in the conversation, topic and setting)

Figure 1. Model of Communicative Competence.

What Figure 1 demonstrates is that the forms of language (that which is labelled linguistic comptence in Figure 1), are not, in themselves, adequate representations of oral language competence. In addition, we need to assess the child's ability to use these forms effectively in oral interaction with peers and adults, to use these forms effectively in getting certain functions (like denying, promising, and clarifying) done, to use these forms effectively in narrative events sequentially, to use these forms effectively in referring to previous events and to use these forms effectively in adjusting to specific contexts, people, topics, or settings (that which is labeled sociolinguistic competence in Figure 1).

In discussion with the Ann Arbor teachers it became clear that this model was considered important, that they believed that form follows and serves function, that we cannot trust assessments of language forms to represent or indicate children's ability to function effectively to use language to get things done.

Having established the importance of function in oral language assessment and realizing that no current tests are constructed to provide such information to the schools, the teachers then demanded, quite justifiably, that they be told what to do. This frustration led us to the second workshop question:

2. How can we decide what aspects of oral language competence are to be measured?

First, realizing that language forms are socially important, we discussed how the Low Angeles Oral Language Project approached this issue.

Since there is no way to assess spoken language with a paper-pencil test, the Los Angeles project devised a procedure in which certain teachers were instructed in how to elicit and tape record ten to fifteen minutes of continuous oral language discourse of individual children. These tapes were then sent to The Center for Applied Linguistics for an analysis of the forms which characterize speakers of Vernacular Black English. Instead of taking the usual testing stance that the presence or absence of a language feature (such as past tense or plural markers) is worthy of measurement, the position was that it is necessary to determine the relative frequency of these features in a way which would insure that teachers do not assume that children who delete a past tense some of the time need to be taught the standard form as though they had never learned it at all. Previous research on Vernacular Black English clearly points out the importance of relative frequency of occurrence of such features as opposed to their categorical presence or absence. Tests of language which do not take relative frequency of occurrence into account or which do not measure language in such a way that it is observed are inadequate representations of children's actual ability. In language testing, such discrete point tests of language have been (and continue to be) dismal failures in reflecting actual competence.

Some 500 tape recordings of Los Angeles children were analyzed using the form illustrated here as Figure 2 (an actual form from that project). These one page summary sheets for each child were intended to be used by teachers to serve as a guide for individualized instruction. Not all minority children use all features of the vernacular nor do they use them with the same frequency of occurrence. It was hoped that teachers would keep these summary sheets in their individual folders for each child.

As our work progressed, however, we realized that we were touching only the tip of the iceberg. However useful such information about the use of language forms might be, we ran the risk of being trapped by the same principle that makes most oral language assessments less than optimally useful as valid mirrors of overall language competence. We were still not assessing oral language functions. Figure 3 represents that situation.

Child's Name ______________ Sex ______ Date of Birth ______________

Interviewer's Initials __________ Date of Interview __________ School __________

DIAGNOSTIC REMARKS

VERB FORMATION	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
Doesn't make subject-verb agreement			
Uses Inappropriate tense			
Deletes Auxiliary			
Uses Invariant BE			
Deletes BE			
Deletes third person singular ending (-s)			
Deletes Past Tense ending (-ed)			
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces consonant cluster			
Deletes /r/ Deletes /l/			
Varies with TH /θ/~/f/ /θ/~/t/ /ð/~/d/			
Drops /g/ (of -ing)			
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative			
Uses inappropriate pronoun form			
Uses inappropriate question formation			
Uses left disclocation			
Deletes Plural			
Deletes Possessive			
Doesn't know form			

Figure 2.

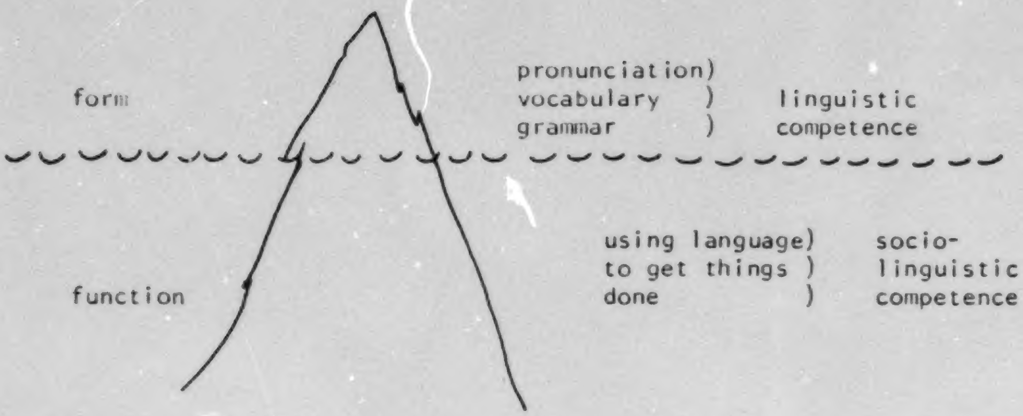
form
pronunciation)
vocabulary)
grammar)
linguistic competence
function
using language)
to get things)
done)
socio-linguistic competence

Figure 3
Representation of Form and Function
in Oral Language Competence

We further realize that although our work to this point was a distinct improvement in assessing language forms (since it used real *oral* language as its stimulus and since it represented *real* frequency of occurrence), we were still a long way from measuring the most important aspects of language: how to use it to get things done.

We also realized that language learning moves from function (beneath the water line of the iceberg) toward the forms which actualize these functions (the features above the water line). Language *teaching*, in contrast, usually moves in exactly the opposite direction, from form to function. This reversal of natural learning direction is equally true of the teaching of reading and writing. After fifty years of research in teaching reading, for example, we still teach in a reductionist (direct method) manner rather than in a constructivist (holistic) mode; we still stress decoding over comprehension. Even in foreign language instruction, we teach pronunciation and vocabulary, hoping that the ability to use language effectively will follow. In writing instruction, we still stress spelling and punctuation over having something useful and interesting to say.

Our discomfort with this assessment of the forms of oral language of vernacular English speakers led us to a further step in our analysis. Would it be possible for us to re-examine these same tape recordings from a different perspective? Could we determine anything helpful about the use of language by these children and make use of such information for the teachers as a guide to individual or group instruction?

In an effort to accomplish exactly this, we devised another one-page summary which encapsulates the language functions which we felt were most useful for classroom learning. We derived these functions from several sources, including our own experiences in the classroom, our intuitions, and in workshops with teachers in seven counties in and around San Diego. This process was replicated in Ann Arbor as part of the workshop. The question was simple: "How do your students need to use language to get things done?" This is a question not often asked of teachers and it took a while to get to the level of generalization which could be most useful. Eventually the Ann Arbor teachers came up with the following list:

- to seek clarification when they don't understand
- to request permission for something
- to request information needed
- to deny something

- to convince someone of something
- to promise something
- to interrupt appropriately
- to get a turn to talk
- to keep from being interrupted

The list could be longer but there can be no question about the importance of these items. It was not substantially different from the lists derived in various workshops in California.

It was then agreed that if teachers are to assess children's oral language ability in terms of sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use language to get things done) such items as those on our list would need to be assessed in terms of effectiveness rather than in terms of their being right or wrong. Children can seek clarification badly but, if they do it at all, it cannot be said to be wrong. The workshop participants then agreed on a scale of effectiveness ranging from very acceptable to acceptable to fairly acceptable by which their students' oral language could be judged. This procedure led to the final question of the workshop.

3. How can we actually measure oral language competence?

Several constraints on such a procedure were mentioned by the teachers. For one thing, it was clear to them that their minority children could not be singled out for separate evaluation. Whatever assessment is done needed to be on all children or in such a way that no minority child is specifically categorized or labelled. The Los Angeles approach could not be used unless it was done on all children, a task which seemed expensive and unnecessary for majority children, at least in light of the Court order. (It was also believed that oral language instruction was subject to the same constraints.)

Secondly, it had become clear by this time that no published or unpublished extant test would serve to measure what most needed to be measured. The simple thing would be to use one of the available norm referenced tests of oral language but these not only do not measure the language forms which are found in Vernacular Black English but they also do not assess what really matters most: how to use language to get things done (function).

Third, it was clear that any assessment of oral language should not give the impression, any more than instruction should give it, that Vernacular English is inferior for all contexts of life. This made the usual right-wrong polarity of testing less than useful. Tests of relative frequency, relative effectiveness, and relative appropriateness simply do not exist.

These constraints made it obvious that if the Court order for assessing the language ability of minority children was to be carried out at all, it would have to be done by each teacher in a non-obtrusive way. Such an assessment would have to be more qualitative than quantitative and it would be oriented toward diagnosis rather than placement.

Upon reflection, it became evident that these constraints would make the task of assessing oral language difficult but, in the long run, there were many advantages to it. For one thing, assessment was placed, by default, squarely in the hands of the teachers. There has been considerable complaint recently about the fact that testing and teaching have been moved from the domain of the classroom to that of the test makers and publishers. Much of direct instruction, for example, moves toward telling the teachers every move to make, every word to say and every response to evaluate. The creativity and knowledge of teachers has been challenged on all sides by the press, the courts and the general public. What Judge Joiner has required in Ann Arbor leads to only one thing: Individual teacher diagnosis.

The field of reading instruction has long recognized and encouraged a procedure known as the Informal Reading Inventory (I.R.I.). This is not a norm referenced instrument or a formal test of any sort. It simply means that a teacher observes a student's reading ability, oral and silent, probes for comprehension, notes reading patterns and comes up with a qualitative assessment. This is what all teachers did before the advent of the standardized test and the direct instrucion method. It was holistic in nature and somewhat subjective. But in the hands of teachers who had knowledge of the process being taught, confidence in their own ability ans sensitivity to their students, there has been nothing more efficient. On the other hand, with ill-trained teachers who lack confidence in themselves and sensitivity to their students, the procedure can be disasterous.

The state of the art in oral language testing is such that coupled with the constraints of the court decision, the only reasonable approach for Ann Arbor to take is toward an analogy to the Informal Reading Inventory; in this case, the Informal Language Inventory (I.L.I.). Workshop participants were skeptical about their need or ability to tape record children's speech for their own analysis of the forms and functions discussed in their sessions. But without tape-recorded data, the chances of making an accurate assessment are slim. This is simply because language is multi-layered (it contains simultaneous pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and meaning) and it goes by very, very rapidly. Even well trained linguists cannot catch the fullness of each form and function in spontaneous actual occurrences. They need several listenings to be able to diagnose effectively, even for the surface forms. Tape-recording may seem difficult or troublesome, but there seems to be no other way to get useful data for assessment.

In order to get tape-recorded data, however, it is first helpful to conceive of oral language tests in which some kind of extended speech can take place. Classrooms often do not contain large amounts of continuous child talk. Sharing time or magic circles provide a number of short utterances by a large number of participants but nothing remotely similar to the amount of speech used by children in out-of-school settings. Ironically, oral language programs in many schools often contain very little continuous oral language, simply because of the constraints of task, time and number of students.

One very strong pedagogical principle about language, however, is that the task first has to happen. There has to be oral language in an oral language program. The second principle is as important as the first: such language has to happen meaningfully. It should be contextually grounded in real life, not a drill in isolation from real life and not a task to be carried out only for its own sake.

One project worked out for the Ann Arbor schools which was in keeping with all of the constraints mentioned involves dialogue chaining. The IMC director wanted to make her facility available to the Court's concerns. Since the IMC has tape-recorders, we worked out an assignment which could pair a vernacular speaker with a standard speaker in a simple assignment. Children at the Martin Luther King school frequently need to use the IMC to write reports on topics assigned by their classroom teachers. For example, suppose the teacher were to assign two such speakers to do a combined report on nutrition. One student would go to the IMC alone. He or she would read and report what was read orally on a tape-recorder. Then the second student would go to the IMC, listen to the taped message by the first student (perhaps with suggestions or leads on what to do next), read some more, then tape record his or her findings for the first student. The process then becomes recursive for as long as necessary. All messages are kept and used for review and ultimate production of the report, whether oral or written.

The pedagogical principles involved in oral language dialogue chaining are obvious:

1. Oral language happens.
2. Oral language happens in a meaningful context and exists as a natural language event.
3. Constrastive learning is permitted to take place. Such learning involves self-monitoring on the part of the minority student and comparison-contrast with the speech of the partner in the report.
4. Self correction is permitted. Self correction in language learning is better than teacher correction. It happens when the need for it to happen is felt. Learning could not ask for better motivation.

There are even more advantages which oral dialogue chaining provides. For one thing, the tape-recorded speech sample in a realistic setting on a functional topic is then available for diagnostic analysis by the teacher (as an I.L.I.). There is no need, then, to try to elicit forms or functions from children on any more artificial topic. The data for the I.L.I. are elicited by a peer in a realistic dialogue in a meaningful task.

Secondly, the tape-recorded data can also serve as a language experience approach to reading. If the children listen to their own tapes and then write down what they have said (or have someone else write it down), they can read it in the manner of the language experience approach (a method which is highly regarded by the reading profession for its ability to avoid the mismatch fo the printed page to the child's own speech).

Third, the tape-recorded data can serve as a file reference of the oral language of each child. Teachers tend to keep files of tests scores, art work, etc., to be used as base-line data to compare with later work for evidence of improvement. There is no reason that oral language samples could not serve the same purpose. In addition, such oral language tape files could be used in parent conferences or in any other way which requires accountability.

Finally, the dialogue chaining idea approach can be used in almost exactly the same way for writing experiences. It has become clear that most children are not proficient in essay writing. Essays are known to be very tightly constructed and formal writing events which develop gradually, once the writer has learned to write to a non-interactive and unspecified audience. Since dialoguing precedes formal speech developmentally in oral language, it is also reasonable to expect dialogue writing to precede more formal essay writing as well. Dialogue chaining in writing can provide a gread deal of useful practice toward that end, as Stanton has pointed out (Language Arts, May 1980).

People who are in the schools are in a better position to judge what is really needed by their students than are those who sit in offices, make up test questions and hunt for norms. Teachers know the requirements of their classrooms and they hear and see the linguistic habits of individual students. The best way to find out about students' oral language ability is to know them, observe their interactions, talk with them and to pay attention to their language. Such a procedure argues for the sort of individual diagnosis which the workshop led to this position as the best measure of oral language assessment for the Ann Arbor schools.

Section 3

Accommodation to Cultural Variation in the Classroom

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Introduction

It is often suggested that certain aspects of Vernacular Black English (VBE) interfere with the reading performance of some Black children. The evidence for this suggestion is quite thin. In this report we will present the evidence underscoring the equivocal nature of the data on VBE as it relates to reading performance among Black children, as well as the evidence on "teaching styles" that work to produce competent readers among some Black children. The review of the evidence on VBE and reading performance among Black children, as well as that on accommodative teaching styles and reading performance among the same population served as the content of several workshops for the Staff at King School in Ann Arbor, Michigan in 1980.

Part I

On the Dialect Question and Reading[6]

During the workshop three levels of analysis of dialect related to reading were presented: (1) phonological; (2) grammatical; and (3) lexical and content. The workshop presentation focused on the implications of data in the aforementioned three areas for reading performance and the equivocal nature of many of the existing findings. Finally, in this section of the workshop, some attention was given to directions that work in this area might take so as to better understand any influence dialect may have on reading performance.

Phonological Interference: A sizeable body of literature exists on phonology and grammar as they relate to reading interference among Black dialect speakers. Generally speaking, the distinction between grammatical and phonological features of Black dialect is not clear cut. Simons' (Note 1) categorization of VBE features illustrates the difficulty of making this distinction:

> First, there are features that are wholly phonological such as consonant cluster simplification in monomorphemic words, e.g., "test" - "tess," "desk" - "dess." Second, there are features that are phonological in origin but intersect with consonant cluster simplification in words with past tense morphemes, e.g., "liked" - "like," "passed" - "pass," etc. Third, there are features that are clearly grammatical such as the invariant "be." (p. 3)

In a study bearing on the question of phonological interference, Melmed (1971) investigated the major phonological features in which VBE differs from Standard English (SE)--"r-lessness," "l-lessness," consonant cluster simplification, weakening of final consonants, and vowel variations. He compared third grade Black children with third grade White children on their ability to discriminate these phonological features auditorily, to produce them, to comprehend them in oral reading, and to comprehend them in silent reading. He found that the Blacks differed from the Whites both in auditory discrimination and production of the selected features. The Blacks failed to discriminate the features more often than the Whites and they also produced them more often than the Whites. This difference was taken as a demonstration that the Blacks were dialect speakers and the Whites were not. If phonological interferences exist, the speakers who exhibited the most dialect features, in this study the Black subjects, should do less well on the reading measures than those who exhibited fewer dialect features, here the White subjects. If there is no phonological interference, then there should be no difference on the reading measures. The latter was found to be the case for Melmed's subjects. While the Black subjects differed on auditory discrimination and production of the selected phonological features, they did not differ on their ability to comprehend them in oral and silent reading.

Rystrom (1970) conducted another study bearing on the question of phonological interference. He compared the effect of training in the production of SE phonology on the reading achievement of VBE speakers. The experimental group received training in producing SE phonology; the control group received language arts training without particular emphasis on SE. Reading instruction for both groups was equally divided between basal reader and phonics approaches. He found that neither training in SE phonology nor type of reading instruction produced significant differences in reading achievement on four measures of reading achievement.

In another study, Rentel and Kennedy (1972) investigated the effects of pattern drill in SE on first grade Appalachian dialect speakers and its influence on reading achievement. They employed the same research strategy as Rystrom to test the hypothesis of phonological and grammatical interference. They compared the reading achievement of three experimental classes who received pattern drill on the phonological and grammatical features of SE that conflict with Appalachian dialect with three control classes who received no special training. Thus in the same way as Rystrom, they attempted to manipulate the amount of dialect to see if it affected reading achievement. If dialect interferes, the group that receives training in SE should experience less interference and do better in reading than a comparable group who have no training and experience more dialect interference. Employing a posttest design, Rentel and Kennedy found no difference in reading achievement between the experimental and control groups.

Further indirect evidence on the question of phonological interference is provided by Osterberg (1961), who studied reading acquisition in a dialect area of Sweden. He conducted an experiment in which a group of first grade children were taught for the first ten weeks of the school year with books especially written to conform to the phonological features of the dialect area in which they lived. A control group received instruction using standard texts that conformed to the standard Swedish speech. If phonological interference with learning to read exists, then teaching students to read with texts that conform to their phonological system should reduce this interference and thus increase reading achievement. Assuming this line of reasoning is correct, then the experimental group in the Osterberg study should have learned to read better than the control group, all other things being equal. Osterberg found that the experimental group was superior to the control group on various measures of reading achievement after ten weeks, and at the end of one year.

Taken as a whole, the evidence cited above is not convincing concerning the question of whether phonological interference in learning to read exists. It is not clear in several works (Melmed; Rentel & Kennedy; Rystrom) whether subjects were actually dialect speakers or whether children were assumed to be dialect speakers because they were from lower Socio-economic Status (SES) groups. In the Melmed study, in particular, it is unlikely that the third grade children were pure dialect speakers. At the very least they should have been mixed dialect speakers. Quite frankly, it is unlikely that a child could have experienced three grades of the standard American school curriculum without some modification in his language behavior. This, coupled with the fact that the task used was "school-like" as was the setting in which it was given makes it unlikely that the vernacular would be called forth by the child. This latter interpretation is corroborated by some recent work on situation and task in children's talk (cf. Cole, Dore, Hall, & Dowley, 1978), as well as an additional study on constraints of text and setting on measurement of mental ability (Orasanu, 1977).

Grammatical Interference: It has been suggested by Stewart (1969), Baratz (1969), and others (cf. DeStefano, 1977; Hall & Freedle, 1975) that the differences between the grammar of VBE speakers and the SE grammar of instructional materials in reading is a major cause of poor reading achievement among VBE speakers. Comprehension may be a more difficult undertaking for VBE speakers as a consequence of these grammatical differences.

One would predict that VBE syntax could interfere with reading comprehension in two major ways. First, interference could arise in cases where the SE sentence is interpreted as a non-equivalent VBE sentence. One example is presented by Stewart (1969), in which the SE sentence, "His eye's open," may be interpreted by the VBE speaker to mean both of his eyes are open because it resembles the VBE sentence "his eyes open" more than it does "His eye open." The latter is the VBE equivalent of "His eye's open." Another example, also pointed out by Stewart, is the interpretation of "He will be busy" as implying habitual action, because "be" in VBE is used as a marker for habitual action: "He be busy." Finally, there are sentences like "He wanted to go home," which the VBE speaker might interpret as a present tense action because he may not have learned that the "ed" marks past tense.

The second type of potential interference that might arise as a result of the difference between VBE syntax and SE syntax is more indirect. Evidence suggests that the two dialects represent different coding schemes (Labov, 1970; Hall & Freedle, 1973, 1975; Baratz, 1969). A child who is most familiar with VBE, e.g., a lower class Black, will tend to encode in his short-term semantic memory sentence information corresponding to that code. Likewise, a child who is most familiar with SE will tend to encode in his short-term semantic memory sentence information corresponding to the standard code. If the incoming stimulus for a Black subject is in his familiar dialect, he does not have to do any extra work in encoding the information since it already is in his preferred language. Thus, his short-term semantic memory is in a "non-standard" state. If he usually retrieves this information in the same form as it is coded in his memory, he will produce a large number of non-standard structures. If, on the other hand, the incoming stimulus is in SE, as in a printed text, encoding in VBE will place the burden of an extra processing step on the VBE speaker as he or she moves from the printed SE text to the meaning.

Whatever the precise process involved in reading, it is reasonable to assume that both SE and VBE speakers, at some point in the process, do a syntactic/semantic analysis of the written sentence. This analysis is by necessity based on SE syntax. However, the VBE speaker must perform an additional analysis of finding the VBE syntax that is the equivalent of the SE form. In other words, the VBE speaker must be able to perform a SE analysis, as does the SE speaker, but then find the equivalent VBE form as well. This extra step in reading, while not interfering with the comprehension of any individual sentence, may accumulate over large amounts of reading material to the point where comprehension is interfered with.

Indirect evidence on the question of grammatical interference is provided by Ruddell (1963) and Tatham (1970). They both found that SE speaking White elementary school children comprehended material written in grammatical sentence patterns more frequently used in their oral language better than material written in sentence patterns less frequently used in their oral language.

In a related study, Sims (1972), analyzed the reading errors of 10 VBE speaking second grade children when they read dialect and standard stories from the Baratz (Note 2) readers. An examination of her data showed that the standard stories were read with the same or fewer errors than were the dialect stories.

Johnson and Simons (1973) asked second and third grade Black children to read equivalent stories written in SE and VBE syntax. They found no difference between the dialect and standard versions of the stories on comprehension and recall.

A note of caution must be sounded regarding the Sims (1972) and the Johnson and Simons (1973) studies. The sample used in these studies included children who had in all likelihood been instructed over a relatively long period in SE; therefore, one would not expect their performance in VBE to be superior.

A study by Labov (1970) attempted to determine directly the degree of interference produced by a particular grammatical feature, the past tense morpheme "ed." VBE speakers typically omit this morpheme in spoken language. The question is, do they understand that the "ed" signals past tense? If they do not, then their comprehension of this aspect of the sentence would suffer, and this would be a case of direct interference. In an ingenious experiment designed to answer this question, Labov asked junior high school VBE speakers to read aloud sentences like the following: "When I passed by, I read the posters. I looked for trouble when I read the news." Their pronunciation of the homograph "read" indicated whether or not they understood the "ed" to be a past tense marker. Labov found that his subjects were able to comprehend the past tense marker 35% to 55% of the time. This fact suggests that failure to understand the "ed" interfered with comprehension more than half the time. In a more detailed analysis, Labov compared subjects' sensitivity to the grammatical or the phonological constraints on consonant cluster simplification and its effects of reading the "ed" suffix. He found that subjects who were more sensitive to grammatical constraints read the "ed" sentences correctly more often than subjects who were more sensitive to the phonological constraints or for whom the constraints were equal. Thus subjects who deleted the "ed" less often, regardless of whether the following word began with a consonant or a vowel, were the better readers of the test sentence.

Given the data, it appears that the hypotheses advanced concerning phonological and grammatical interference may have to be revised. It may be that VBE does not interfere with the acquisition of reading skills for all VBE speakers in all educational situations. Indeed, Piestrup (1973) has shown that the ways teachers communicate in the classroom are crucial to children's success in learning to read. Moreover, she states that

> . . . efforts to find deficits in children or to focus on their language differences may only confound the problems of negative teacher expectations and evade the problem of functional conflict between teachers and children with different cultural backgrounds. Teachers can alienate children from learning by subtly rejecting their Black speech. They can discourage them by implying by tone, gesture and even by silence that the children lack potential. Children, in turn, can show their resilience by engaging in verbal play and ritual insult apart from the teacher, or they can withdraw into a moody silence. Neither strategy helps them to learn to read. (p. 170)

Lexical and Content Interference: The data in this category are the scantest of all. This is especially true when we think of vocabulary as content (see, for example, Cazden, 1972). Nevertheless, a few generalizations can be made. It appears that poor minority group children consistently show slower lexical development as measured by (1) vocabulary subtests of IQ tests like the WISC (see, for example, Shuey, 1966); (2) level of syntactic responding in Entwistle-type free association tests; and (3) recognition vocabulary tests like the Peabody.

Some research, though not without its methodological flaws, has been performed on vocabulary and the VBE question. Williams and Rivers (Note 3, Note 4) investigated score changes on the Boehm Readiness Test as a function of changes in the vocabulary of the test in the direction of VBE. They found that when the vocabulary on this test was changed so that it reflected their experiential network, poor Black children in the St. Louis public schools performed at a level comparable to the White middle-class sample on which the test was standardized. Thus, it would appear that dialect has an effect on comprehension at the lexical level as studied by Williams and Rivers. However, these results are somewhat weakened by the fact that there was no control group. If Williams and Rivers had used White children as a control and still produced the same results for Black children, their data would be more convincing and their claim more justified.

Comprehension and the dialect question has also been investigated by Hall, Reder, and Cole (1975). This research avoids our major criticism of Williams and Rivers' work. Hall et al. conducted an experiment which tested the effects of racial group membership and dialect on unstructured and probed recall for comprehension of simple stories. Thirty-two children, age 4 years 6 months, were the subjects for the experiment. Sixteen were Black and an equal number were White. Sub-groups of four children within each racial group were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions such that order of exposure to experimenter (Black and White) and dialects

(Standard English vs. Vernacular Black English) were counterbalanced. They found that Whites performed better than Blacks in SE; Blacks performed better than Whites in VBE; Blacks tested in VBE were equivalent to Whites tested in SE; and Whites performed better in SE than in VBE.

Discussion: What emerges from these studies, which vary in their degree of robustness, is a complex and unclear picture. Dialect can be interpreted either as a facilitator (cf. Williams & Rivers, Note 3; Hall, Reder, & Cole, 1975) or an interferer (cf. Hall & Freedle, 1973, 1975). The unclear nature of the findings from these studies suggests that some of our prevailing hypotheses about dialect and reading might need to be revised. But which direction should the revision take? Certainly, the payoff does not seem to reside in a wholesale emphasis on children's repetition or non-repetition of selected grammatical features in the context of sentences. Nor does it seem to lie in an emphasis on children's ability to acquire the phonology of SE. The real payoff most likely resides in investigation of the ethnography of communication. This approach will capture subtle, but important, cultural and situational differences in language function and use which might relate to reading performance.

Future Directions: The future directions portion of this first section of the workshop focused on some questions for research which should ultimately provide the information needed to make claims about dialect and reading. The needed information can best be studied in terms of questions having to do with cultural variation and language use. The list of questions is not exhaustive, but rather illustrative. Underlying each question is the assumption that there are group differences related to the context of experience. The questions are focused on two aspects of language: (1) differences in language structure and content; and (2) patterns of language use and function.

The specific questions which are posed draw upon two kinds of data in Behavioral Science; namely, sociolinguistics and developmental psychology. With respect to sociolinguistics, they build upon and extend the work of Labov (1972) on elaboration of structure; of Houston (1969) on specific registers and shifts in same; of Ward (1971), Horner (1968), and Cole, Dore, Hall, and Dowley (1978) on the communication network as portrayed in the home and immediate surrounds; and on language use in the school activity (Cazden, John, & Hymes, 1972; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Regarding developmental psychology, the questions build upon and extend the work of Hess (1969) on cognitive environments, and White and Watts (1973) on the environment of the child in general.

Structure and Content

(1) Are there differences in the way Black and White speakers structure portions of the lexicon? Hall (Note 5) has hypothesized that there might be certain differences in the way in which speakers of Black dialect and SE structure prepositions, for example. Some Black adults have been observed to say the following to children: "John, sit to the table." In this instance, a SE speaker would probably say: "John, sit at the table." The question is whether or not the rendering, "sit to the table" does not give the child a different relationship between himself and the object table than

that interpretable from "John, sit at the table." Essentially, the first instance is more factive than locative.

On a broader scale, the reason for asking this question lies in its centrality of our experience as humans. Space and time, both of which can be readily revealed through prepositions, are basic coordinates of experience. Since only one object can be in a given place at a given time, spatial locatives provide an indispensable device for identification purposes. "Hand me the spoon on the table," identifies the spoon that the speaker is referring to. The place adverbial, "on the table," indicates a search field, and the head noun, "spoon," provides the target description. As Miller and Jonnson-Laird (1976) indicate, how a search is to be executed depends on the particular preposition relating the target to the landmark: on, in, at, by, under, etc. How children learn to delimit the search field and the cultural variations in same should be instructive in trying to ferret out factors relevant to dialect and reading comprehension.

(2) Are there differences between vocabulary used in the home and in the school situation? Answers to this question might be found first in raw counts and frequencies of lexical items. In addition, little is known about the social class differences in the way in which certain parts of the lexicon are structured in different situations. A useful guide in this analysis would be Miller and Johnson-Laird's (1976) theory which describes how certain parts of the lexicon (i.e., spatial relationships and verbs of motion) might be structured.

(3) Assuming that phonology is an important determinant of dialect difference, does phonology play a role in producing misunderstanding between teacher and student? This question can be seen to relate directly to the role of dialect (particularly VBE) in learning to read. Simons (Note 1), for example, has noted that one major behavioral consequence of the differences between the VBE and SE phonological systems for reading acquisition is that certain written words are pronounced differently by VBE than by SE speakers. The results of these differences are words that have a pronunciation unique to VBE, e.g., "nest" - "ness," "rest" - "ress," "hand" - "han." Moreover, there are words whose VBE pronunciation results in a different word, e.g., "test" - "tess," "mend" - "men," "walked" - "walk," "cold" - "coal," "find" - "fine," etc. The latter result in an extra set of homophones for VBE speakers. These differences in pronunciation, for example, could interfere with the VBE speaker's acquisition of word recognition skills.

Patterns of Usage

(1) To what extent do children rely on non-verbal as opposed to verbal cues in obtaining information from the environment and communicating information about the environment to others? We should ask how do children acquire information from others (adults, older children, peers, etc.), and further, how does their information acquisition here differ, and/or how is it similar to that in the naturally occurring events of their everyday life. Cultural differences may also be significant in this area. For example, Byers and Byers (1972) found that cultural background influences non-verbal communication

between children and teachers. White children were found to be more successful in communicating non-verbally with a White teacher than were Black children, even though the teacher paid as much attention to both.

(2) To what extent are there cultural differences in children's adoption of a hypothetical stance toward linguistic information? To study this question productively, the domain of study must be delimited. Analysis of the use of verbs and conjunctions in naturally occurring speech is one way this delimitation can be accomplished. The use of verbs, for example, might be analyzed because they are necessary for predication in English, which makes sentences something more than a string of word associations. Conjunctions are essential for the expression of logical connections and relations, and therefore also significant in the determination of meaning.

(3) How might the participant structures of different cultural groups contribute to miscommunication between students and teachers? Though not obvious to the casual observer, the ways in which interaction in the classroom is organized may significantly influence the success of a child. If the participant structures are in conflict with those of the students' culture, the students might not be able to learn or even show the abilities they possess. Philips (1972) provides an account of Native American children for whom such cultural conflict in the classroom causes difficulty.

By investigating these and other questions on structure and content and patterns of usage of language, it should be possible to clarify the exact nature of how dialect may be used to facilitate or to hinder the reading process.

Summary: In this section of the workshop, we described a group of studies on dialect variation. These studies represent attempts to locate the sources of difficulties for dialect speakers on three different levels: (1) phonological, (2) grammatical, and (3) lexical and content. Their findings, taken as a whole, do not adequately identify the sources of difficulties; they are both inconclusive and conflicting. They contain a number of methodological flaws which cast doubt on their validity. More importantly, it is quite likely that the theoretical hypotheses which underlie these studies are in need of revision.

These hypotheses are based on at least two false assumptions. The first is that ethnic differences in language performance on one of the three levels of analysis provide evidence for dialect interference. That phonological differences exist is, of course, obvious; that they actually interfere to a great degree with a child's learning to read is another question altogether. The second assumption is that the test-like situations under which experiments are conducted can adequately measure the effects of dialect. Research from this perspective ignores the fact that teaching and learning do not occur in isolation, but are influenced by situation and context. In a repetition task, the phonology, grammar, and vocabulary of a child may vary from that in his everyday speech. Contrived, laboratory-type tasks also miss more subtle dialect differences, both verbal and non-verbal, which may result in miscommunication. In order to capture such differences, the function and significance of language within cultures must be included in any study of dialect interference.

Several illustrative research questions which might yield more adequate data in the area of dialect and reading were suggested. These questions were divided into those concerned with (1) structure and content, and (2) patterns of language use and function. All of these questions have at least one thing in common: they take into consideration the influence of situation and context. Questions on structure, for example, are not asked in isolation, but in relation to the effects on teacher-student or text-student communication. Questions on language use center on actual language experiences in the classroom and the home. In these ways, by making studies more in line with the ethnography of communication, aspects of dialect interference overlooked by previous studies can be examined.

The implications of this type of research for reading lie primarily in the area of reading instruction. If researchers can specify for educators actual sources of miscommunication in the educational experience of dialect speakers, several benefits will be realized. Because the differences specified will be ones which actually result in a lowering of school achievement, a clearer picture of dialect interference will emerge. Educators will thus be better equipped to handle problems of dialect that emerge. As they become more sensitive to the cultural differences that influence teaching and learning, teachers will be able to modify the ways in which they interact with dialect-speaking students to better accommodate them, not only in actual instructional methods, but in other ways as well. Changes might also be seen in the materials used for reading instruction. Unlike the suggestions of the sixties (e.g., dialect readers), however, they would be both theoretically motivated and based on empirical evidence.

Ultimately, we would hope that research from the perspective we have outlined would contribute to the elimination of inequities in American education.

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Part II

Teaching Styles and Reading Performance

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Introduction

While there is considerable evidence that both reading failure and dialect differences occur in some classrooms, there is little more than speculation about whether dialect differences make learning to read more difficult for Black Children and about how teachers could ease possible difficulties. Part 2 of the workshop focused on some research** that explored the relationship of Black dialect and reading performance of children taught with different approaches. The research in question focused on what kinds of dialect interference occurs and the ways teachers accommodate instruction to prevent or quickly resolve Black children's reading problems.

During the workshop episodes of classroom instruction illustrating certain points were presented, six teaching strategies were described along with data relating them to achievement test results in reading at the end of the first grade.

The assumption underlying the presentation in this workshop was that there are systematic ways that many Black children's speech differs from the language required by the school. One systematic way is what has been

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**Piestrup, A. M. Black dialect interference and accommodation of reading instruction in first grade. Monographs of the Language-Behavior Research Laboratory, 1973, No. 4.

called structural conflict (i.e., interference with learning ability stemming from a mismatch of linguistic structures see example 1.)

Example 1:

T '. . . how would you harm the colt?'

C_1 Tear it.

T Huh?

C_1 Tear it.

T Th--th--Oh! Do you, do you know what a colt is, now?

C_1 Oh, kill it, kill it.

T No, what's a colt?

C_1 Somethin' to wear.

One feature of Black dialect is deletion of the "l" sound, making "coat" and "colt" homonyms.

There is a linguistic mismatch or interference between the child's system and that of the school. The conflict is not insurmountable--but, the teacher's handling of the situation is extremely important.

The teacher could -

a. ignore the initial response
b. call on another child
c. accommodate her instruction

The teacher chooses option c (accommodation) as displayed in Example 2.

Example 2:

T There's an 'l' in it. "Coat" is c-o-a-ah--don't laugh, that's all right. "Colt" is very hard for city children, because they haven't been out on the farm, and they don't know about it. It's a baby, a baby colt.

C_3 A baby colt.

Example 2 (continued):

C_1 Oh yeah!

T Remember the story? an' it's a c-o-l-t. "Coat" is c-o-a-t, and it's no 'l' in it, but listen to--Keisha--colt, colt, colt. Now, do you know what a colt is?

C_4 Yeah, I know.

T What is it?

C_2 A baby horse.

T Yes, uh-huh, how could you harm a baby horse?

C_1 You shoot it.

T Hey, you c'--that would certainly harm it. But harm doesn't always mean being killed.

C_1 You try to get on it an' ride it.

T Well, if it weren't ready, yes. If it were too young to ride.

C_1 It'll fall.

Another systematic way that many Black children's speech differs from the language required in the school is in a mismatch in the functions which Standard English serve in a given culture. Example 3 illustrates what we are calling *functional conflict*.

Example 3:

T 'Off'

C_1 'Off to the--

T OK. It says 'wood.'

C_1 --wood.'

T We would say woods--this book was written in England.

C_1 Now, I'm through. I ain't gonna read this page again.

T OK. Well, we're gonna turn the page and we're just gonna read the next page.

Example 3 (continued):

C_1 Uh uh! Darren 'sposed to be first.
T Well, I'm waiting for Darren to come back. Come on Darren.
C_2 He's a awww.
T Come on. If you can't find your glasses we'll do without them this time.
C_2 Come on, awww.
C_3 I can't find 'em.
T Well, then, come back and sit down.
C_2 You can. He just playin' aroun' _______________ (not clear).
C_1 He crack his knuckles, in the buckles.
C_3 Uh-huh.
T Oh, Zip and Wendy ran to the woods, and here's the --
C_1 I got a tow truck. My mama bought me one.
T -- father.
C_1 An' I got me a car to hook it on. It got a hook --

Functional interference is likely to occur either when teachers do not listen carefully to children--or when children do not attend to the lesson. In Example 3 we can note that the following behaviors occurred: (1) the children closed the teacher out; (2) the teacher is not communicating well; and (2) the teacher does not pick up on the children's verbal play as in: "He cracks - his knuckles in the buckles."

The most productive teacher behavior with children from culturally different backgrounds is accommodation. In Example 4 we can see how the teacher accommodates to the children after initially assuming that they understood when such was not the case.

Example 4:

T (Holds up a card with 'wow' written on it.)
CLASS WOW!
T When would you say 'wow?'
C_1 When you got some wil', wil' clothes.
T Well, you might say 'wow' if you had on bright clothes.
What about this one?

(In this section of the episode, "wow" and "wild" were confused. The child would probably continue to read "wow" as "wild," and the teacher did not seem to recognize the difficulty.)

T (Holds up a card with 'cow' written on it.)
CLASS COW!
T How about a sentence?
C_1 When it be co' you freeze to death.
T What does it eat?
C_2 Flowers.
T It does?
C_3 Grass.
T It does?
C_4 Weeds.
T Then what is it?
CLASS An an-i-mal!
T Right!

Accommodation like that displayed in Example 4 is no easy task to accomplish. The difficulty of being accommodative can be seen in Example 5 where the teacher refuses to build on what the children know.

Example 5:

T OK. What does 'by and by' mean?

C_2 It mean goin' bye an' bye.

C_3 Uh-uh. It means you wa' bye to each other.

T You what? You what?

C_1 You buy each other!

C_3 You d' hear wha' I was sayin', I --

T All right, what does by and by mean? What did you say, Melvin?

C_2 Bye to each other?

T Saying bye to each other? 'By and by Little Lamb
____________________.

C_3 He not --, he just sayin' he knew.

T By and by; you still haven't told me. Use some other words to tell me what 'by and by' means. Thelma, do you know what 'by and by' means?

C_4 (Sings.) Buy an' bye-bye. (Alternate spelling, Bye-by.)

T OK. This is not the bye you say when you wave goodbye to somebody. That kind of 'bye' is b-y-e, OK? This is a different kind of 'by.' It just means, after some time, Little Lamb saw something.

Example 6 shows a fairly extensive example of accommodation. In addition to being accommodative, the teacher is applying unrelenting pressure on the children to work.

Example 6:

T All right, come on let's do some thinkin'. Why, how can you say that this voice is beautiful if you can't -- don't get on that, get . . . back, honey; don't get on that. (Child, stepping on microphone cord.) HOW CAN YOU SAY! WHAT DO YOU MEAN! WHAT DO YOU THINK? You can't see the voice, can you?

CLASS No.

Example 6 (continued):

T I CAN SAY LINDA'S BEAUTIFUL, CAN'T I?
CLASS Yes.
T WHY CAN I SAY IT?
C_5 'Cause you can see her.
T BECAUSE I CAN SEE HER, RIGHT. ALL RIGHT, CAN YOU SEE A VOICE?
CLASS No!
T WHERE IS THE VOICE, CAN YOU SEE IT?
CLASS No!
T Well, what do you mean when you say, a most beautiful voice. Now I want you to tell me what you think. What do you think, Linda?
C_6 I think you hear a voice.
T And that's why you call it 'beautiful?'
C_6 Yes.
T All right. That's a good thought. Shut your big mouth before I put my fist in it. What do you think, Shelley?

Teaching Styles and Reading Performance

To further illustrate and reinforce the points made above concerning accommodation, attention was given during Part 2 of the workshop to data** on "teaching styles" and their relationship to reading performance. The data presented were those collected by Piestrup** in a California School system with a predominantly Black low income population. Six "teaching styles" were described: (1) vocabulary emphasis; (2) decoding emphasis; (3) standard pronunciation emphasis; (4) White liberal approach: (5) Black artful approach; and (6) interrupting approach. The six "teaching styles" and examples of language marking them follow:

Vocabulary Emphasis: The focus is on explaining words.

Example 7:

C_1 'Fireboat.'
T Fireboat, and mail and box.
C_1 Fireboa', 'wha's a fireboa'?
T Do you know, 'cause we have them out here in the water, on the bay.
C_1 It's a sh'; it's a sh'.
T What do you suppose a fireboat'd be for?
C_2 If a ship catch on fire, the fireboat'd put it out, the fire out.
T It's out on the water, and it has hoses an' it's like a fire-truck, only it's a what?
C_3 Fireboat.
C_2 'Mail.'
C_4 'Mailbox.'
T How many people got, used the mailbox? D'you, any of you ever?
C_4 I do, we had a real mailbox but we had to take it off 'cause we had two mailboxes. We have to go in my mother's closet to get the mail.
T You had to go in your mother's what?
C_4 Closet to get the mail.
C_5 (Laughs.)
T Th-they put the mail slot into your mother's coat closet, in your house? Why'd you have to go in the coat closet?
C_4 I 'on' know, 'cause we had two mailboxes, an' one, one you just take the mail out but this one you have to p-put the mail in, slip the mail in 'ere an', then it comes out from my mother's closet.

Example 7 (continued):

T I was right, I didn't think it really was, but it was.

T and C_5 (Laughs.)

T That would be interesting. I hope it doesn't get lost among the clothes. You ever lose any letters that way?

T No? (Laughs.) Neater than my closet, then. Who can read the first sentence? Denise.

. . . . . .

T No, shsh, Danny's turn.

C_7 'A mailbox is on the next corner.'

C_8 I wanna read it.

C_9 I know.

C_2 It get dark at night.

T OK, let's try one more. We've got so many here.

C_6 'Dar, dart.'

T Very good, Keith.

C_6 That's one of them things you throw. I got one of them in my mother drawer.

T Do you have darts?

C_6 No, I jus' got one, I, they do things, they dang'rous.

T Yes, they are, because they could get on somebody's --

C_7 Eye.

T Eye, mouth, nose, any place. They could hurt you badly. OK --

Decoding Emphasis: The focus is on sound symbol correspondence.

Example 8:

T All right, you put a sound in there.

C_1 'Pling it in the c-l-ah-z-et.'

T You know what that is?

C_1 'C-l-ah-z-it.'

Example 8 (continued):

T When you put it all together do you get anything?
C_1 Closet.
T Right.
C_1 'F-on-nn-i-n-th.'
T You know why, it's not, 'th,' it's the other one.
C_1 'Thī.'
T It's not like thumb, it's the other one; it's the other one.
C_1 'Th.'
T No, it's like what?
T No, it's not like thumb, it's like what? Thumb goes this way (writes h), but that's not yours; yours goes this way (writes th), so which one is that? Look in back of you.
C_1 'Th.'
T 'Thz.'
C_1 'Thz.'
T 'Thz,' can you say it that way?
C_1 'Thz.'
T 'Thz,' OK, right, now, now try it. Sh, wait a minute.
C_1 I--ng.
T OK, what would it be; can you put it together?

Standard Pronunciation Emphasis: The focus is on teaching standard phonology.

Example 9:

T Tell me the sound you hear at the beginning and the sound you hear at the end. (Shows pictures.)
CLASS Ham. H-m.
T Who wants a hard one? Janet, I have a 'ship.'
C_1 It begins with a --

Example 9 (continued):

T Begins with a, let's say it for her.

CLASS Ship.

C_1 It ends with a 'b.'

T What would it sound like if it ended with a 'b?' Shib. What does it end with?

CLASS 'P.'

T Say it.

CLASS Ship.

T (Shows a picture of a web.)

CLASS Web.

C_2 It end with a 'b.'

T It ends with a 'b,' say it.

C_2 It ends with a 'b.'

White Liberal Approach: The focus is on the occasional use of dialect by teachers, accepting dialect pronunciation and using the children's own writing in dialect during reading instruction.

Example 10:

C_3 I'm right here.

T Huh? What page? What page are we supposed to be reading orally?

C_4 I 'on't know.

T You 'on' know? (Dialect intonation)

C_5 'Scott Street.'

T 'Treasure Hunt,' did we ever read --

C_5 'Scott Street.'

T Didn't we ever read --

C_6 I wanna read 'Treasure Hunt,' I love 'Treasure Hunt.'

T You do love it, huh? What page is it (Dialect intonation)

Black Artful Approach: The focus is on incorporating a form of rhythmic play unique to Black speakers into teaching.

Example 11:

T She met a boy, and this is the man all tattered and --
ALL -- torn.
T Here's another word, is 'tattered.'
T & CLASS 'Tattered.'
T If you have on clothes that are all tattered, what do you look like?
CLASS Ragged. Raggelly.
T Wait, wait. One person, whatchoo say?
C_2 Raggelly.
T Raggelly.
C_3 Teacher!
C_4 They torn, they torn up.
$C_{2,3}$ They got, they got --
T They got what?
C_4 -- they got holes in 'em.
T OK. Anything you wanta say, Melinda?
C_5 And dey have, dey have -- all the shoes are raggy too.
T Shoes are raggy --
$C_{2,3}$ An' clothes.
T Wait just a minute.
C_4 His (clothes) are raggelly, and his pants are raggelly, and a, his --
C_6 I know.
C_4 -- hat is raggelly.
C_6 I know.
C_5 -- and his shirt is raggelly.
T Danelle?
C_7 And his body is ragged.

Example 11 (continued):

CLASS (Giggles.)

C_5 His body is dirty. His body is dirty. His body is --. His body is dirty.

T Oh, he's dirty, too.

C_5 Hi -- His hair is dirty.

T Oooohh!

C_4 He don't wash his hair; he don't comb his hair.

C_5 An' his teeth is yellow.

T Oohh!

CLASS (Giggles.)

C_5 He don't brush, he don't brush his teeth.

T He looks terrible, doesn't he?

C_3 He look like a ol' man.

C_5 He don' wash his hair.

CLASS (Giggles.)

C_2 In a old house that Jack built.

CLASS (Giggles.)

Interrupting Approach: The focus is on anticipating children's responses and repetition of what children say.

Example 12:

C_1 'Fire.'

T Sound.

C_1 'Fa-rr.'

T 'Rr.'

C_1 'Rr.'

T 'Rr.' So what is it? Fa-- you don't play with it. It's what?

C_1 He-o-we-fa-er.

T Uh huh; now say it quickly. Fa-- Uh huh, say it. I can't hear you.

C_1 'Fire.'

T 'Fa-aa.'

Example 12 (continued):

C_1 'Fire.'
T 'Fire,' uh huh, say it quickly.
C_1 'Fire.'
T 'Fire,' 'fire.'
C_1 'Fire.'
T You don't play with fire, do you?
C_1 He ha - ar- dee.
T Dee.
C_1 Da.
T Ha -- what?
C_1 'Hide.'
T Put an 's' at the end.

Summary: The examples of the teaching styles displayed above focus on teacher-pupil interaction and its effect on reading.

They unequivocally show that "teachers can alienate children from learning by subtly rejecting their Black speech . . . they can discourage them by implying by tone, gesture, and even by silence that the children lack potential . . . Children, in turn, can show their resilience by engaging in verbal play and ritual insult apart from the teacher, or they can withdraw into a moody silence . . ." (Piestrup, 1973) On the other hand, accommodating teacher-pupil interactions like those displayed by the Black artful teachers can overcome the adversities mentioned above. The pros and cons of accommodation vs. interference can be seen in Example 13.

#13

1.0 Spontaneous Speech

	ACCOMMODATION	INTERFERENCE
1.1	Teacher expresses appreciation of artful dialect forms by winking, nodding and smiling with children, or by entering into verbal play with them.	Teacher ignores or discourages verbal play when used by Black children; treats verbal play only as disruptive, does not include it in instruction.
1.2	Teacher converses coherently with children who speak in Black dialect.	Teacher asks children to repeat what they said, responds inappropriately or ignores spontaneous speech of Black children.
1.3	Teacher's speech includes features of Black English intonation, phonology, vocabulary or grammar.	Teacher speaks only in Standard English; does not use even vocabulary or intonation of dialect.
1.4	During children's spontaneous speech. teacher accepts dialect pronunciation.	During children's spontaneous speech, teacher repeates children's sentences, supplying grammatical features as if to erase dialect, or interrupts the flow of speech to "correct" dialect.

#13 - continued

2.0 Instructional Speech

	ACCOMMODATION	INTERFERENCE
2.1	Teacher accepts dialect pronunciation during instruction; focuses on reading lesson rather than on changing speech patterns; provides Standard English alternate only if necessary to clarify an instructional issue.	Teacher insists on formal Standard usage during instruction, interrupting the continuity of the lesson; loses children's interest or attention by asking them to repeat several times; devotes considerable time during reading instruction to changing language patterns.,
2.2	Teacher readily comprehends dialect responses; when children use dialect homonyms teacher clarifies their meaning by eliciting examples or definitions.	Teacher misinterprets dialect responses; when children use dialect homonyms, teacher proceeds as if they were in error; requires a considerable time to clarify their meaning.
2.3	Teacher speaks distinctly, avoiding distortion, during instruction.	Teacher does not speak distinctly or distorts speech; overemphasizes sounds.
2.4	Teacher encourages children to speak; listens to their responses; allows them to state answers and questions fully; acknowledges responses affirmatively; children ask questions, give responses and make comments enthusiastically.	Teacher anticipates responses, interrupts children when they speak, talks over them; repeats what they have said in Standard English, correcting tone of voice; children speak very softly and as seldom as possible; teacher does almost all the talking.

#13 - continued

3.0 Reading Instruction

	ACCOMMODATION	INTERFERENCE
3.1	Teacher gives auditory, discrimination training; uses unambiguous syntactic cues when presenting dialect homonyms; elicits correct responses.	Teacher does not train children to listen for Standard English distinctions; presents isolated sounds of Standard English for identification without insuring accuracy of children's responses.
3.2	Teacher reinforces sound-symbol correspondence by emphasizing decoding skills; gives special attention to coding sounds and medial vowels; children consistently attempt to sound out words.	Teacher discourages use of word attack skills in supplying sounds or context clues before children have had a chance to decode symbols; asks children to identify sounds from an inappropriate Standard English model; considerable wild guessing occurs.
3.3	Teacher uses familiar words in instruction; checks to see whether words used are familiar to children; teaches meanings of unfamiliar words and concepts; uses examples and clues to which children respond appropriately.	Teacher uses unfamiliar words in instruction without clarifying; children look quizzical, fail to respond or respond inappropriately to explanations.

#13 - continued

4.0 Oral Reading

	ACCOMMODATION	INTERFERENCE
4.1	When children read sentences in dialect, teacher distinguishes reading errors from Black English; accepts dialect pronunciation as correct reading.	When children read sentences in dialect, teacher interrupts, speaks before children have a chance to respond, talks over children; interprets dialect pronunciations as reading errors.
4.2	When children read isolated words in dialect, teacher listens carefully to determine whether the words were identified correctly; asks children for a sentence if the distinction is not clear; provides alternate words asking which the child meant; provides context clues to clarify word meaning; writes alternate words of homonym pair to clarify distinctions.	When children read isolated words in dialect, teacher does not listen carefully, asks them to repeat several times; repeats words in a loud tone of voice without insuring that children can make distinctions between homonym pairs.
4.3	Teacher encourages reading for meaning; asks comprehension questions; encourages continuity in oral reading; children's voices indicate that they comprehend what they read.	Teacher accepts flat, choppy production of sounds during oral reading; children's voices while reading indicate that they are decoding without comprehending.

#13 - continued

5.0 Reading Materials

	ACCOMMODATION	INTERFERENCE
5.1	Teacher uses Black children's notes, stories, or other materials which accurately represent their speech in teaching reading.	Teacher uses only Standard English reading materials; children's writing is Standard.
5.2	Teacher uses materials with rhythmic patterns, etc., which facilitate use of natural speech patterns in reading.	Teacher uses materials which elicit choppy, stilted speech in reading.
5.3	Teacher uses materials which flexibly represent phoneme-grapheme relationships.	Teacher uses materials which represent Standard English with one-to-one phoneme-grapheme correspondence.
5.4	Teacher uses reading materials with predominantly familiar content; checks to see whether words used in reading materials are familiar to children, teaches meaning of unfamiliar words.	Teacher uses reading materials with considerable unfamiliar content; explanations interrupt the continuity of the lesson; children's responses indicate that word meanings were not clarified.

Finally, as Example 14 shows the pay-off from the accommodating teaching styles is rather forthright.

Example 14:

Teaching Style	Rank of Class on Reading Achievement at the end of Year by teaching style
Vocabulary Emphasis	3.5
Decoding Emphasis	3.5
Standard Pronunciation Emphasis	2
White Liberal Approach	4
Black Artful Approach	1
Interrupting Approach	5

Section 4

Setting the Issues in Space: Interviews and Observations at King School in Ann Arbor

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In order to get some impressions concerning teacher-pupil interactions and practices, interviews and observations were conducted with a random sample of teachers at the Martin Luther King School during the spring semester of 1980. In addition, observations were made of the plaintiff children in the classroom. The instruments used for this purpose can be found in Appendix A (Interview Instrument) and B (Observation Instrument), respectively. Both the interviews and the observations focused on the Language Arts, especially reading.

It is widely hypothesized that cultural differences in the functions and uses of language-more specifically, cultural differences between the functions and uses of language that the child has acquired at home, and the functions and uses of language familiar to and expected by the teacher--can have significant and far-reaching educational consequences. The observations and interviews were intended to help determine to what extent such differences did in fact exist between teachers and VBE-speaking pupils at King School, and how the teachers dealt with them.

What are some of the consequences? Three categories of consequences can be identified: social, cognitive, and the acquisition of school skills. We shall discuss these consequences and then present the data from the interviews and observations.

Social. The social consequences of "non-standard" speech for children can affect teacher-pupil as well as peer relationships. The consequences of a teacher's attitude towards a given dialect are profound. For example, it can affect her initial judgement about how smart a child is likely to be, or how he will fare as a learner, how he is grouped for instruction, and how his contributions in class are treated, etc. This in turn affects the child's attitude about himself as a school learner, his willingness to participate, his expectations about results of his participation, etc. The consequences of non-standard speech with respect to one's standing with peers are also profound. It is often suggested that high status in peer and school settings requires opposing rules for using, or not using non-standard speech at different ages.

Cognitive. There is a long tradition in cognitive social science linking language and thought. A number of questions concerning this linkage have emerged through the years. One illustration of a specific cognitive question concerns vocabulary. Vocabulary differences clearly reflect differences in public access to one's ideas. These differences lead to different opportunities to talk about a given meaning or aspect of meaning as a consequence of which different speech communities would have different access to its members' and others' ideas. At a deeper level, different types of speech might involve different opportunities to engage in certain basic cognitive processes. For example, the process of modification in the case of adjectives or adverbs, or the process of subordination in the case of conjunctions could easily be affected by differentially elaborated vocabularies. There is also evidence suggesting that unrecognized differences in vocabulary result in mis-estimates of memory capacity and "general intelligence."

Acquisition of School Skills. The possible consequence of non-standard speech for the acquisition of school skills may be illustrated for three areas: reading, ability to engage in "instructional dialogue," and the ability to deal with a kind of meta-behavioral information. With reference to reading, a phonological mismatch may affect children's acquisition of phonic skills. Further, phonological mismatches might lead teachers to misinterpret children's own reading of a sentence (for example, if a child says "John pin" when he sees the sentence "John's pen," the teacher might misinterpret this as a mistake instead of a different pronunciation. On the other hand, semantic mismatches may affect children's expectations about the gist of the language that they are reading. Syntactic mismatches may also affect children's expectations about gist (see, e.g., Piestrup, 1973). Moreover, it is often suggested that different cultures may promote different levels of meta-linguistic awareness, or the capacity to reflect upon language use. Learning to read requires a certain set of meta-linguistic awarenesses and some cultures may provide more practice than others in those skills which are reasonably isomorphic to the kinds of processes that children will have to use in learning to read (for example, counting out rhymes and jump rope chants which are based on alliteration or rhyming).

Certain patterns of early language socialization might also hamper children's ability to engage in "instructional dialogues" when they enter school. By this we mean that the kind of communication situation in which a teacher and pupil engage in a question and answer routine and where the questioner has a specific answer in mind and the answerer's job is to guess what that answer is. By itself this process is of little interest. But, it becomes interesting when we consider that the big difference between this type of interaction and the "normal" question and answer exchange is that the correctness of the answer is not necessarily judged on the truth value but on its conformity to a strategy or plan for answering which the teacher has already constructed. To be sure, this leads us away from the consequences of non-standard speech per se and into the consequences of the broader communication environment within which the child functions. The question is, does the communication environment provide an opportunity to engage in interactions which are similar to that of instructional dialogue? Here "similar" is used in the sense that the requirements of a correct answer are based on some ability to intuit the kind of answering strategy that the questioner has in mind, rather than on truth value or some kind of aesthetic organization of the speech act.

Patterns of language socialization said to characterize some subcultures/classes are often said to interfere with the child's ability to deal with analytical, or "meta-behavioral" information. By this is meant the ability to analyze, and make analytical statements about, certain kinds of behavior which are not always reflected upon in everyday life. These include perceptual awareness (like the ability to analyze a perceptual array into a set of goemetrical or mathematical relationships) as well as behavioral awareness (such as the ability to analyze the emotions of a person or those of a fictional character).

During the interviews and observations we were interested in revealing those teacher behaviors that might be hypothesized to facilitate positive consequences for children in the three categories: social, cognitive, and the acquisition of school skills. To be sure not all social, cognitive, and educational consequences for children are in the hands of teachers directly, for example, children's status in peer groups, language used in the home etc. On the other hand, some of these consequences are, e.g., attitudes toward a given dialect, judgements about how smart children are, treatment of various children's contributions in class, vocabulary building, opportunity to engage in various types of conversations, opportunities to engage in instructional dialogue, materials used in instruction, to name a few. The teachers can also ameliorate potential learning problems caused by cultural differences by accommodating to the children's speech and behavior patterns in ways such as those described in example 13 in section 3 of this report. We now turn to a report of the interviews and observation data.

Interviews

Item #1 (Reading program in use): All of the teachers interviewed report that they use the Houghton-Mifflin reading program, and have done so for some years. Its relative importance, though, varies for accounting for less than half to accounting for almost all the reading instruction time.

Item #2 (Grade taught): The interviewees taught kindergarten through grade 5. The largest number of teachers interviewed taught grades 3 and 5.

Item #3 (Number of students for reading): While some variance was noted, the majority of teachers reported that they teach reading to less than 10 children at any given time. Although it was not pervasive, some ability grouping was reported. For the most part, this grouping does not appear to be ongoing. Ability grouping did not parallel grade level, but was reported for several levels.

Item #4 (Years of teaching experience): The majority of the teachers interviewed report that they have taught for 20 years or more. Few of the teachers interviewed were neophytes.

Item #5 (Description of reading class): The majority of the teachers reported that the students in their reading class cover a wide range, from low to high ability. A substantial number, however, report the reading ability of their students as average to high.

Item #6 (Description of teaching instruction): Most of the teachers interviewed reported that they use a combination of whole class, small group, and individualized methods (although the observations were almost always of the entire class together).

Item #7 (Hours per week spent in reading instruction): The teachers report that they spend varying amounts of time per week in reading instruction. The mode is around 10 hours per week.

Item #8 (Hours per week teaching reading): On the average, the teachers interviewed spent 8 hours per week actually teaching reading.

Item #9 (Years using current reading program): The modal number of years that the teachers have used the reading programs that they are now using is 2-5.

Item #10 (Supplementary or remedial reading): Most of the teachers interviewed have some students that meet with another teacher for remedial/ supplementary reading for a few hours per week.

Item #11 (Comprehension topics): Reference skills, analogies, outlining, and deductions are typically considered difficult to teach. Vocabulary, predicting outcomes, and main idea are typically considered easy to teach. There are not enough data points to draw any firm conclusions here.

Items #12-14 (Use of other materials): Use of materials to supplement the basic program is widespread. The particular materials used, however, varies. Audio-visuals seem more popular at the lower grades; paperback books are more popular at the higher grades.

Items #15-17 (Vernacular Black English): To a person the teachers interviewed were aware of Vernacular Black English (VBE). Moreover, no negative reaction to the idea of VBE was discernible in the interviews. Most teachers reported instances of VBE, particularly in question answers and/or informal interactions. Most claimed to handle this in different ways depending on the child and situation. Specifically, at the lower grade levels, the teachers tend to ignore the use of VBE, i.e., they respond no differently to a question or answer by a student in VBE than they would if it were in SE. Correcting to Standard English is more prevalent at the higher grade levels.

Observations

During the time that the observations were done, most of the teachers used procedural or explanatory (giving teacher-made directions and following up with examples) activities in the conduct of lessons. A single instance of routine activity structure (reading or reciting directions from student texts, workbooks, or teacher manuals) was observed.

The two most frequently used instructional methods observed were review work (reviewing other work) and round robin (calling on different children to read or answer questions). Informs (classifying, explaining, defining, comparing and contrasting), question and answers (asking questions, listening to answers), and cruising were observed equally often.

On-task questions and answers were observed to be the most frequent student activity. Writing on worksheets and oral reading were used less frequently.

The materials observed in use varied; workbooks, dittoes. and worksheets were all used. The particular language arts tasks in which children were observed ran the gamut.

The list of tasks observed included the following: (1) following directions; (2) word recognition; (3) word meaning understanding; (4) recalling or locating facts and details; (5) interpreting sentences; (6) sequencing information; (7) reading practice; (8) sentence structure, grammar; (9) writing reports, stories, poems.

During the course of the workshops, much emphasis was placed on teacher-pupil interaction, particularly, strategies teachers might use to facilitate the educational performance of Black children. Several categories of teacher behavior were observed to this end: (1) handling of the children's spontaneous speech; (2) the teacher's speech during instruction; (3) the teacher's handling of reading instruction; (4) the handling of oral reading; and (5) reading materials.

Overall the interaction pattern and teaching strategy seen most frequently among the teachers observed was characterized by ACCOMMODATION! Recall that a list of accommodative behaviors can be seen in example 13, part 2, section 3 of this report. Specifically, the teachers who were observed: (1) conversed with children who used VBE, suggesting some level of understanding of VBE by the teachers; (2) accepted dialect pronunciations when they occurred (particularly among children in the lower grades); (3) spoke distinctly; (4) determined if children understood words in isolation; (5) encouraged children to speak and listened to their responses; and (6) used only Standard English materials.

Summary

The random sample of teachers from the Martin Luther King School who were interviewed and observed seem to have the following characteristics:

1. high degree of experience
2. oriented to the learning potential of individual children as distinct from the fixed grouping of children
3. flexible enough in their classroom organization to handle a wide range of learning potential among the children being taught
4. spend a large proportion of teaching time in reading instruction
5. creative in the use of instructional materials and varied in their choices of same
6. aware of cultural variation in language
7. more accommodating then interfering in their teaching strategies
8. provide frequent experience in instructional dialogue for all children
9. make appropriate assessment of topic difficulty for the children being taught

Appendix A

Name ______________________________

City __________ School __________ Grade __________ Date __________

1. What reading program do you use? ______________________________

2. What grade do you teach? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

3. How many students do you have for reading?

less than 10 10-15 16-20 21-25 26-30 30+

4. How many years teaching experience do you have?

1 2 3 4 5 6-10 10-20 20+

5. How would you describe your reading class?

low ability average ability high ability

6. How would you describe the teaching instruction in your class?

whole class small group individualized

combination of whole class and small group combination of all three

7. How many hours per week do the students spend in reading instruction with you and working independently?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 10+

8. How many hours per week do you spend actually teaching reading?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 10+

9. How many years have you used the reading program that you are now using?

First year ☐ 2-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 10 or more years ☐

10. Do any of your students go to another teacher for supplementary or remedial reading? __________ If so, for how many hours per week?

1-2 _____ 3-5 _____ 6-10 _____

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11. Please rate the teaching difficulty of the following reading comprehension topics for the middle and lower group children in your classroom. (4 indicates very difficult to teach. 0 indicates very easy to teach. X indicates not applicable to your class.)

	difficult				easy	not applicable
main idea	4	3	2	1	0	X
cause/effect	4	3	2	1	0	X
implied details	4	3	2	1	0	X
vocabulary	4	3	2	1	0	X
outlining	4	3	2	1	0	X
reference skills	4	3	2	1	0	X
reading for purpose	4	3	2	1	0	X
following directions	4	3	2	1	0	X
context clues	4	3	2	1	0	X
drawing conclusions	4	3	2	1	0	X
deductions	4	3	2	1	0	X
determining mood	4	3	2	1	0	X
point of view	4	3	2	1	0	X
fact versus opinion	4	3	2	1	0	X
determining plot	4	3	2	1	0	X
analogies	4	3	2	1	0	X
sequence of events	4	3	2	1	0	X
predicting outcomes	4	3	2	1	0	X

12. For what proportion of reading instruction time do you use materials from your school's reading program?

100% to 95% ____ 94% to 85% ____ 84% to 60% ____

59% to 20% ____ 19% to not at all ____

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13. For what proportion of reading instruction time do you use other or supplementary materials?

100% to 95% ____ 94% to 85% ____ 84% to 60% ____

59% to 20% ____ 19% to not at all ____

14. Other Materials

Please list the type of materials you use and indicate if you use them Regularly, Occasionally, or Infrequently.

____________	____________	☐
____________	____________	☐
____________	____________	☐

15. Have you observed instances of children using Vernacular Black English during lessons in your class?

Yes ________ No ________

16. If answer to #15 is yes, please describe the instances.

17. Can you describe how you handled the instances described in #16.

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Appendix B

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CODE

1. Observation Number and Teaching Personnel

Each teacher or student event is given a number and teaching personnel involved is designated by following the number with:

T	a classroom teacher
A	an aide or student teacher
O	some other adult

2. Time

The beginning of each event, in hours and minutes, is written down.

3. Teacher Activity

Preparation

P	Procedural
PR	(Routine preparation)--reading or reciting directions from student texts, workbooks, or teachers manuals
PP	(Paraphrase preparation)--rewording text, workbook or manual directions or adding information
PE	(Explanatory preparation)--giving own directions and following up with examples

Instruction

IR	(Reviews work)--reviewing other work
II	(Informs)--classifying, explaining, defining, comparing and contrasting. That is, formal teaching.
QA	(Questions-Answers)--asking questions, listening to answers
RR	(Round Robin)--calling on different children to read or answer questions
O	(Other)--none of the above
X	(Not present)
C	Cruising

4. Group/Size

A	Group 1 working with teacher
B	Group 2 working with teacher
C	Group 3 working with teacher
D	Group 4 working with teacher
I	An individual child observed with teacher
EC	Entire class observed with teacher

5. Student Activity

QA	Answering and asking on-task questions
OR	Oral reading
SR	Silent reading
RW	Reading and writing on worksheets
WF	Writing freely
LI	Listening
AV	Audio-visual activities
OT	Off task

6. Student or Teacher Material

Basal or Supplementary

TX	Textbook
WB	Workbook, ditto sheets, worksheets
AN	Ancillary materials (specify)
CH	Chalkboard, chart
RE	Reference books - dictionary, etc.

Other

TR	Trade books
EG	Educational game
PP	Paper and pencil
TM	Teacher made materials

7. Title and Page Number

8. Task

FOD	Following directions
WOR	Word recognition
WOA	Work attack
WOM	Word meaning understanding
REL	Recalling or locating facts and details
ISN	Interpreting sentences
IPS	Interpreting paragraphs or stories
SEQ	Sequencing information
SUM	Summarizing, finding main idea
RPR	Reading practice
STS	Study skills
PUN	Punctuation and capitalization
SNS	Sentence structure, grammar
PRS	Paragraph or poem structure
USR	Using reference materials
WRR	Writing reports, stories, poems
LIS	Literary forms, devices; authors
OTH	Other

9. The following items describe possible teaching strategies. Check each item that characterizes a strategy you see being used during the indicated activity. A given item should be checked as many times as a strategy meeting that description is used.

a. Spontaneous Speech of Children

Teacher expresses appreciation of artful dialect forms.
Teacher converses coherently with children who speak in Black dialect.
Teacher's speech includes features of Black English.
Teacher accepts dialect pronunciation during children's spontaneous speech.
Teacher ignores or discourages verbal play by Black children.
Teacher responds inappropriately or ignores spontaneous speech of Black children, or asks them to repeat what they said.
Teacher speaks only in Standard English.
Teacher interrupts or repeats children's spontaneous speech to "correct" dialect.

b. Instructional Speech

Teacher accepts dialect pronunciation during instruction.
Teacher readily comprehends dialect responses.
Teacher speaks distinctly, avoiding distortion.
Teacher encourages children to speak, listens to their responses.
Teacher insists on formal Standard usage during instruction.
Teacher misinterprets dialect responses.
Teacher does not speak distinctly, or overemphasizes sounds.
Teacher interrupts and "corrects" children.

c. Reading Instruction

Teacher gives auditory discrimination training, using clear syntactic cues to disambiguate dialect homonyms.
Teacher reinforces sound-symbol correspondence by emphasizing decoding skills.
Teacher uses familiar words in instruction and explains unfamiliar words and concepts.
Teacher does not train children to listen for Standard English distinctions.
Teacher discourages use of word attack skills.
Teacher uses unfamiliar words in instruction without explanation.

d. Oral Reading

Teacher accepts dialect pronunciation, distinguishing it from reading errors.
Teacher is careful to determine whether children have correctly understood words read in isolation.
Teacher encourages reading for comprehension.
Teacher interprets dialect pronunciation as reading error.
Teacher does not insure that children can make distinctions between dialect homonym pairs.
Teacher accepts flat, choppy production during oral reading, which indicates children are decoding without comprehending.

e. Reading Materials

Teacher uses Black children's notes or stories.
Teacher uses materials with rhythmic patterns, etc., that facilitate use of natural speech patterns in reading.
Teacher uses materials which flexibly represent phoneme-grapheme relationships.
Teacher uses reading materials with predominantly familiar content.
Teacher uses only Standard English reading materials.
Teacher uses materials which elicit choppy, stilted speech.
Teacher uses materials which represent Standard English with one-to-one phoneme-grapheme correspondence.
Teacher uses reading materials with considerable unfamiliar content.

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

KING SCHOOL
BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH
IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

Ann Arbor Public Schools
Ann Arbor, Michigan
1980

I. INTRODUCTION

The Education Plan submitted by the Ann Arbor Board of Education in response to the order of July 12, 1979 from the Honorable Judge Charles W. Joiner contained several objectives relating to the evaluation of the program. Objective 7d stated "a comprehensive survey of staff reactions will be administered at the close of the year." Consistent with the direction of that objective, the Management Team developed and administered a questionnaire during the Spring of 1980. The purpose of that questionnaire was to assess both King School teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the many and complex issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read as well as assessing their perception of the contribution of the inservice program to their understanding of the issues. The survey was developed by Dr. Thomas Pietras, Director of Language Arts and Dr. Lee H. Hansen, Associate Superintendent for Curriculum and Instruction, with consultant help from Dr. Michael Hunter, Director of Research and Evaluation for the Ann Arbor Public Schools. The survey was reviewed extensively and systematically with the Management Team and was revised on the basis of their input. In the sections which follow, the development and structure of the questionnaire are described and the results are detailed. A brief summary and discussion completes this report.

II. THE STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A. Issues to be Examined

This questionnaire set out to examine two basic questions:

1) How adequate an understanding of the issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read do King School elementary teachers perceive themselves as having?

2) Do the King Elementary School teachers who participated in the inservice program perceive that inservice program as contributing significantly to their understanding of the issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read?

The Management Team felt it essential to look at these two issues separately. If you look at the two issues as forming a two-by-two matrix, there are basically four conditions that could exist. Teachers could perceive themselves as being knowledgeable and could perceive the inservice as having made a significant contribution. Alternatively, teachers could perceive themselves as being knowledgeable, but could see the inservice program as having relatively little impact on their knowledge base. Thirdly, teachers could perceive themselves as not being knowledgeable, but as having gained significantly from the inservice program. And, finally, teachers could perceive themselves as not being knowledgeable and as not being influenced by the inservice program. It was, therefore, essential to develop the questionnaire so that each condition could emerge from the data if, in fact, it represented the real situation.

In addition to asking teachers to rate their general understanding of the issues and their general perception of the contribution of the inservice program, several subscores were developed within the questionnaire relating to more specific substantive issues. The issues selected for study included:

1) discrimination issues surrounding black vernacular English,

2) appropriate assessment of children's language usage,

3) appropriate pedagogy and black vernacular English,

4) the linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English,

5) the socio-linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English,

6) code-switching between standard English and black vernacular English.

Each of these concepts became the theme for a subscore supported by from two to five items from the overall questionnaire.

B. Form and Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed as a series of Likert scale questionnaire items. Nineteen such items were ultimately agreed upon. Each item consisted of a single, unambiguous statement followed by a five-point scale. The referent points on the scale included: definitely agree (DA), probably agree (PA), uncertain (U), probably disagree (PD), and definitely disagree (DD). Two forms of each item were developed. The first form assessed the teachers' perceptions of their understanding; the second form of the item assessed the teachers' perception of the contribution of the inservice program to their understanding. Item 1(a) and 1(b) are reprinted here so that you may see the format that was utilized.

1. (a) I understand the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have a better understanding of the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

Because each item had an (a) form and a (b) form, the nineteen items resulted actually in 38 Likert-type statements which each workshop participant responded to. The survey was responded to by all 32 of the teachers who participated in the inservice workshop program. The survey was administered during the first week of June, 1980. It was administered by Mrs. Rachel Schreiber, Principal of King Elementary School, using directions given to her by Drs. Hansen, Hunter, and Pietras. The survey was administered at a regular staff meeting. The surveys, once administered, were packaged and sent directly to Dr. Hunter. Dr. Hunter then scored the questionnaires and developed the statistical summaries that are found in the various tables in this report.

C. Reliability of the Scales

All 19 (a) items and 19 (b) items were analyzed for reliability using co-efficient alpha. This is a statistical routine for reliability that is particularly appropriate for Likert scale items. The 19 (a) items have an alpha co-efficient of .88 and the 19 (b) items have an alpha co-efficient of .95. These two values are extremely high for a test of such limited number of items administered to a relatively limited number of subjects. It suggests that the overall questionnaire for both parts (a) and (b) is reliable. Because of the few numbers of items making up the subscales, no attempt was made to analyze them for reliability. Certainly because of the small numbers of items found in some of the subscales, their reliability is likely to be considerably lower. However, given the overall high reliability of the total instruments, it is reasonable to believe that the subscales will have enough reliability to make them usable in this analysis. However, more caution must be used in analyzing the results coming from the subscales than in analyzing the results of the 19-item scales.

Because of the unreliability of single-item scales, no attempt was made to analyze the data on an item by item basis. Considerable error and considerable unreliability can creep into a single five-point Likert scale item; attempts to analyze the data item by item can lead to misinterpretation of the results. For the same reasons, the results of the subscales must be treated with considerable caution. So that the reader may see the entire questionnaire as it was presented to the teacher, a copy can be found in the appendix following this report.

III. QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

Tables 1 and 2 present the general results for each set of 19 items. Table 1 relates to teachers' perception of their general understanding of the issues of dialect in education. Table 2 shows the data coming from the 19 (b) items which looked at the contribution of the inservice program to teachers' general understanding of the issues of dialect in education. Each table displays the number of items in the scale, the minimum and maximum possible scores, the average or mean respondent score, the standard deviation of those scores, and the actual range of scores. The Likert scale was weighted from one to five for scoring purposes with Definitely Agree weighted one and Definitely Disagre weighted five. Thus, a low total score reflected agreement and a high total score reflected disagreement.

TABLE 1

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THEIR GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE ISSUES OF DIALECT AND EDUCATION

N = 32

No. of Items	19
Minimum/Maximum Possible Score	19/95
Average (Mean) Respondent Score	29.94
Standard Deviation of Scores	9.42
Range of Scores	19-67

TABLE 2

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE ISSUES OF DIALECT AND EDUCATION

N = 32

No. of Items	19
Minimum/Maximum Possible Score	19/95
Average (Mean) Respondent Score	41.22
Standard Deviation of Scores	16.61
Range of Scores	19-73

The mean score of 29.94 in Table 1 suggests that teachers who participated in the inservice program generally perceive themselves as understanding the issues surrounding dialect and education. The average respondent in Table 1 fell on the scale between definitely agree and probably agree across all 19 items. In Table 2 the average respondent score was 41.22 with a standard deviation of 16.61. Teachers were positively inclined toward the contribution of the inservice program to their general understanding. However, they were less positively inclined toward the contribution of the inservice than they were toward their perception of their understanding of the issues. An average respondent score of 41.22 suggests that the average respondent in the group of 32 teachers would probably agree that the inservice program contributed to their general understanding of the issues of dialect and education. It is not unusual that the scores represented in Table 2 should not be quite as high as those in Table 1, since a number of the teachers already knew much of the material that was to be presented at the workshop because they had attended similar sessions at the University of Michigan or engaged in their own professional reading.

Tables 3 and 4 present the first set of subscales that were assessed through the questionnaire. These two scales look at teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the discrimination issues surrounding black vernacular English and their perception of the contributions of the inservice program to that understanding. Each scale is made up of five items.

TABLE 3

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING
OF THE DISCRIMINATION ISSUES SURROUNDING BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

1. (a) I understand the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

3. (a) I understand the implications for potential student achievement if a teacher were to regard black vernacular English as a language deficit.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

4. (a) I am sensitive to the fact that language used as a social marker can have negative human effects.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

13. (a) I realize how rejecting a child's language use communicates a rejection of the child.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

14. (a) I understand that society treats dialects differentially, i.e., it is accepting of some while non-accepting of others.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 6.81
Standard Deviation of Responses is - 2.13

5 X 10 15 20 25
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

TABLE 4

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE DISCRIMINATION ISSUES SURROUNDING BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

1. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have a better understanding of the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

3. (b) As a result of the inservice, I understand better the implications for potential student achievement if a teacher were to regard black vernacular English as a language deficit.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

4. (b) As a result of the inservice, I am more sensitive to the fact that language used as a social marker can have negative human effects.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

13. (b) As a result of the inservice, I realize more clearly how rejecting a child's language use communicates a rejection of the child.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

14. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding that society treats dialects differentially, i.e., it is accepting of some while non-accepting of others.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 10.88
Standard Deviation of Subscores is - 4.74

5 10 X 15 20 25

Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

The average teacher subscore response on Table 3 was 6.81 with a standard deviation of 2.13. Likewise, the same scores for Table 4 were 10.88 and 4.74 respectively. The high mean score in Table 3 and the relatively small standard deviation suggests that most teachers definitely agree that they understand the discrimination issues surrounding black vernacular English. Although the values in Table 4 are not quite as high, they do suggest that teachers would probably agree that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of the discrimination issues surrounding black vernacular English.

TABLE 5

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE APPROPRIATE ASSESSMENT OF CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE USAGE

2. (a) I am able to distinguish between a child's dialect use and a decoding error during oral reading.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

15. (a) I understand the necessity of oral language assessment to diagnose a student's language use.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

18. (a) I apply the principle of appropriateness as I assess a child's language use.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 4.56
Standard Deviation of Response is - 1.74

3 X 6 9 12 15
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

TABLE 6

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE APPROPRIATE ASSESSMENT OF CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE USAGE

2. (b) As a result of the inservice, I am better able to distinguish a child's dialect use and a decoding error during oral reading.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

15. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding for the necessity of oral language assessment to diagnose a student's language use.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

18. (b) As a result of the inservice, I can better apply the principle of appropriateness as I assess a child's language use.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average (Mean) Teacher Subscore Response is - 6.12
Standard Deviation of Subscores is - 3.07

3 6_X 9 12 15
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

Tables 5 and 6 relate to teachers' perception of their understanding of the appropriate assessment of children's language and their perceptions of the contribution of the inservice program to that understanding. These two scales are represented by three items apiece from the questionnaire. The mean subscore response of 4.56 with a standard deviation of 1.74 as found in Table 5 suggests that teachers definitely agree that they understand the appropriate assessment of children's language usage. The mean score of 6.12 and the standard deviation of 3.07 found in Table 6 suggest that on that same issue teachers would probably agree that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of the appropriate assessment of children's language usage. Again, the values for the contribution of the inservice program are not quite as high as the values for their perception of their understanding. However, both sets of values are well on the positive side of the scale and are supportive of both understanding and contribution of the inservice program to that understanding.

TABLE 7

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE LINGUISTIC ISSUES SURROUNDING BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

---

5. (a) I understand the linguistic basis for the assertion that no one variety of the English language communicates better than any other.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

16. (a) I understand "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

19. (a) I understand that there is variation in the intonation, grammar, and vocabulary of standard English according to variables such as geography, sex, age, and culture.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 4.50
Standard Deviation of Subscores is - 2.08

3 6 9 12 15
X
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

TABLE 8

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE LINGUISTIC ISSUES SURROUNDING BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

5. (b) As a result of the inservice, I understand better the linguistic basis for the assertion that no one variety of the English language communicates better than any other.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

16. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding of "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

17. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding that there is variation in the intonation, grammar, and vocabulary of standard English according to variables such as geography, sex, age, and culture.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 6.81
Standard Deviation of Subscores is - 3.48

```
3          6  X       9          12          15
________________________________________________
Definitely Agree              Definitely Disagree
```

Tables 7 and 8 reflect three item scales relating to teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English and their perception of the contribution of the inservice program to their understanding. The mean teacher response of 4.50, with a standard deviation recorded in Table 7 suggests once again that teachers are strong in their perception that they understand the linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English. Likewise, the mean of 6.81 and the standard deviation of 3.48 found in Table 8 suggest that teachers would probably agree that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of the linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English. Again, teachers are somewhat stronger in their perception of their understanding of the linguistic issues than they are in their perceptions of the contribution of the inservice program. However, both scales are well on the positive side.

TABLE 9

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF APPROPRIATE PEDAGOGY AND BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

7. (a) I develop lessons that help students learn the nature of and relationship between "home talk" and "school talk."

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

8. (a) I apply language experience activities in my teaching of students who speak black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

9. (a) I apply the strategies of the "accommodating" teacher while teaching black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teaching Subscore Response is - 5.69
Standard Deviation of Responses is - 2.10

3 X 6 9 12 15
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

TABLE 10

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF APPROPRIATE PEDAGOGY AND BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

7. (b) As a result of the inservice, I can better develop lessons that help students learn the nature of and relationship between "home talk" and "school talk."

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

8. (b) As a result of the inservice, I can apply more effectively language experience activities in my teaching of students who speak black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

9. (b) As a result of the inservice, I can apply more effectively the strategies of the "accommodating" teacher while teaching black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 6.91
Standard Deviation of Subscore is - 2.58

3 6 X 9 12 15
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

Tables 9 and 10 display the data for two subscores relating to teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the appropriate pedagogy for black vernacular English and their perceptions of the contribution of the inservice program to that understanding. Again, these two scales are supported by three items apiece. The average teacher subscore response of 5.69 with a standard deviation of 2.10 as found in Table 9 suggests that teachers would probably agree, in general, that they have an understanding of the appropriate pedagogy for black vernacular English. Likewise, the average score of 6.91 with a standard deviation of 2.58 as found in Table 10 suggests that teachers probably agree that the inservice program made a contribution to their understanding of the appropriate pedagogy for black vernacular English. Though still quite positive, the scale values of Tables 9 and 10 are not quite as high as those found in earlier tables. Some speculation as to why this may be so may be found in the summary and discussion at the end of the report.

TABLE 11

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE SOCIO-LINGUISTIC ISSUES OF BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

10. (a) I accept that standard English need not be the sole language in the classroom setting.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

11. (a) I accept that black vernacular English communicates as well as standard English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

12. (a) I believe that a black child's use of black vernacular English does not thwart his ability to learn.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 5.59
Standard Deviation of Responses is - 3.13

3 X 6 9 12 15
Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

TABLE 12

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF THE SOCIO-LINGUISTIC ISSUES OF BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

10. (b) As a result of the inservice, I am more reassured that standard English need not be the sole language in the classroom setting.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

11. (b) As a result of the inservice, I can accept more readily that black vernacular English communicates as well as standard English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

12. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have strengthened my belief that a black child's use of black vernacular English does not thwart his ability to learn.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 6.97
Standard Deviation of Subscore is - 3.32

```
3          6          9          12         15
             X
Definitely Agree             Definitely Disagree
```

Tables 11 and 12 display the results of a 3-item subscale measuring teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the socio-linguistic issues of black vernacular English and their perceptions of the contribution of the inservice program to that understanding. Once again, the average respondent score of 5.59 with a standard deviation of 3.13 found in Table 11 suggests that teachers, in general, would probably agree that they understand the socio-linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English. Similarly, the average respondent score of 6.97 with a standard deviation of 3.32 found in Table 12 suggests that teachers would probably agree that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of the socio-linguistic issues of black vernacular English.

Finally, in Tables 13 and 14 two-item subscales are presented which measure teachers' perceptions of their understanding of the issue of code switching between standard English and black vernacular English. The average respondent score of 2.78 with a standard deviation of 1.29 as found in Table 13, suggests that teachers would definitely agree that they understand the issues of code switching between standard English and black vernacular English. Moreover, the average respondent score of 3.53 and the standard deviation of 1.83 found in Table 14 suggests that teachers are relatively strong in their perception that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of code-switching between standard English and black vernacular English.

TABLE 13

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF CODE SWITCHING BETWEEN STANDARD ENGLISH AND BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

---

16. (a) I understand "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

17. (a) I understand that "code switching" is the goal of language instruction for black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 2.78
Standard Deviation of Response is - 1.29

2	4	6	8	10
X				
Definitely Agree			Definitely Disagree	

TABLE 14

SUBSCORE OF TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INSERVICE PROGRAM TO THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF CODE-SWITCHING BETWEEN STANDARD ENGLISH AND BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH

16. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding of "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

17. (b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding as to why "code switching" is the goal of language instruction for black vernacular English speaking students.

1	2	3	4	5
DA	PA	U	PD	DD

Average Teacher Subscore Response is - 3.53
Standard Deviation of Subscore is - 1.83

2 X 4 6 8 10

Definitely Agree Definitely Disagree

IV. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In the previous section, the results of the questionnaire administered to the King Elementary School teachers were presented in a series of tables looking at both a general response as well as subscale responses to a number of significant issues. A number of conclusions can reasonably be made from the data.

1. Teachers were positive, without exception, in their perception of their understanding of the issues surrounding black vernacular English and education. This is true, not only for their response to the issue generally, but for their response to each of the subscale issues.

2. Teachers, without exception, generally believed that the inservice program contributed to their understanding of the issues surrounding black vernacular English and learning to read standard English.

3. Teacher respondents tended to feel stronger about their perceived understanding of the issues than they did about the contribution of the inservice program to that understanding. This is not an unexpected reaction, since some of the workshop participants had already mastered the material presented in the inservice program.

4. Though teacher respondents felt positively about all substantive issues, they were somewhat less positive about their understanding of the pedagogical issues. This softer perception carries over to the contribution of the inservice program to teachers' understanding of the pedagogical issues. This was not unexpected, since the linguistic and socio-linguistic issues surrounding black vernacular English are more clearly articulated in the literature than are the pedagogical issues.

LHH:nb

APPENDIX A

KING SCHOOL BLACK VERNACULAR ENGLISH
INSERVICE QUESTIONNAIRE

Read each statement and then indicate whether you:

Definitely Agree (DA)	Probably Agree (PA)	Are Uncertain (U)	Probably Disagree (PD)	Definitely Disagree (DD)

1. (a) I understand the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have a better understanding of the educational issues regarding black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

2. (a) I am able to distinguish between a child's dialect use and a decoding error during oral reading.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I am better able to distinguish between a child's dialect use and a decoding error during oral reading.

DA PA U PD DD

3. (a) I understand the implications for potential student achievement if a teacher were to regard black vernacular English as a language deficit.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I understand better the implications for potential student achievement if a teacher were to regard black vernacular English as a language deficit.

DA PA U PD DD

4. (a) I am sensitive to the fact that language used as a social marker can have negative human effects.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I am more sensitive to the fact that language used as a social marker can have negative human effects.

DA PA U PD DD

5. (a) I understand the linguistic basis for the assertion that no one variety of the English language communicates better than any other.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I understand better the linguistic basis for the assertion that no one variety of the English language communicates better than any other.

DA PA U PD DD

6. (a) I understand that dialect usage is an issue of appropriateness rather than one of correct versus incorrect language use.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I understand better that dialect usage is an issue of appropriateness rather than one of correct versus incorrect language use.

DA PA U PD DD

7. (a) I develop lessons that help students learn the nature of and relationship between "home talk" and "school talk."

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I can better develop lessons that help students learn the nature of and relationship between "home talk" and school talk."

DA PA U PD DD

8. (a) I apply language experience activities in my teaching of students who speak black vernacular English.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I can apply more effectively language experience activities in my teaching of students who speak black vernacular English.

DA PA U PD DD

9. (a) I apply the strategies of the "accommodating" teacher while teaching black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I can apply more effectively the strategies of the "accommodating" teacher while teaching black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

10. (a) I accept that standard English need not be the sole language in the classroom setting.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I am more reassured that standard English need not be the sole language in the classroom setting.

DA PA U PD DD

11. (a) I accept that black vernacular English communicates as well as standard English.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I can accept more readily that black vernacular English communicates as well as standard English.

DA PA U PD DD

12. (a) I believe that a black child's use of black vernacular English does not thwart his ability to learn.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have strengthened my belief that a black child's use of black vernacular English does not thwart his ability to learn.

DA PA U PD DD

13. (a) I realize how rejecting a child's language use communicates a rejection of the child.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I realize more clearly how rejecting a child's language use communicates a rejection of the child.

DA PA U PD DD

14. (a) I understand that society treats dialects differentially, i.e., it is accepting of some while non-accepting of others.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding that society treats dialects differentially, i.e., it is accepting of some while non-accepting of others.

DA PA U PD DD

15. (a) I understand the necessity of oral language assessment to diagnose a student's language use.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding for the necessity of oral language assessment to diagnose a student's language use.

DA PA U PD DD

16. (a) I understand "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding of "code switching" as applied to the relationship between standard English and black vernacular English.

DA PA U PD DD

17. (a) I understand that "code switching" is the goal of language instruction for black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding as to why "code switching" is the goal of language instruction for black vernacular English speaking students.

DA PA U PD DD

18. (a) I apply the principle of appropriateness as I assess a child's language use.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I can better apply the principle of appropriateness as I assess a child's language use.

DA PA U PD DD

19. (a) I understand that there is variation in the intonation, grammar, and vocabulary of standard English according to variables such as geography, sex, age, and culture.

DA PA U PD DD

(b) As a result of the inservice, I have increased my understanding that there is variation in the intonation, grammar, and vocabulary of standard English according to variables such as geography, sex, age, and culture.

DA PA U PD DD

20. (a) Overall I feel that the information presented during the King Inservice Program has been informative.

DA PA U PD DD

* Please respond briefly to any of the following questions that seem appropriate to you.

1. Is there some insight you gained as a result of the inservice that bears elaboration?

2. What suggestions do you have for improving the inservice?

PLAINTIFF STUDENT PROGRESS EVALUATION

Ann Arbor Public Schools

Ann Arbor, Michigan

1980

STUDENT PROGRESS EVALUATION

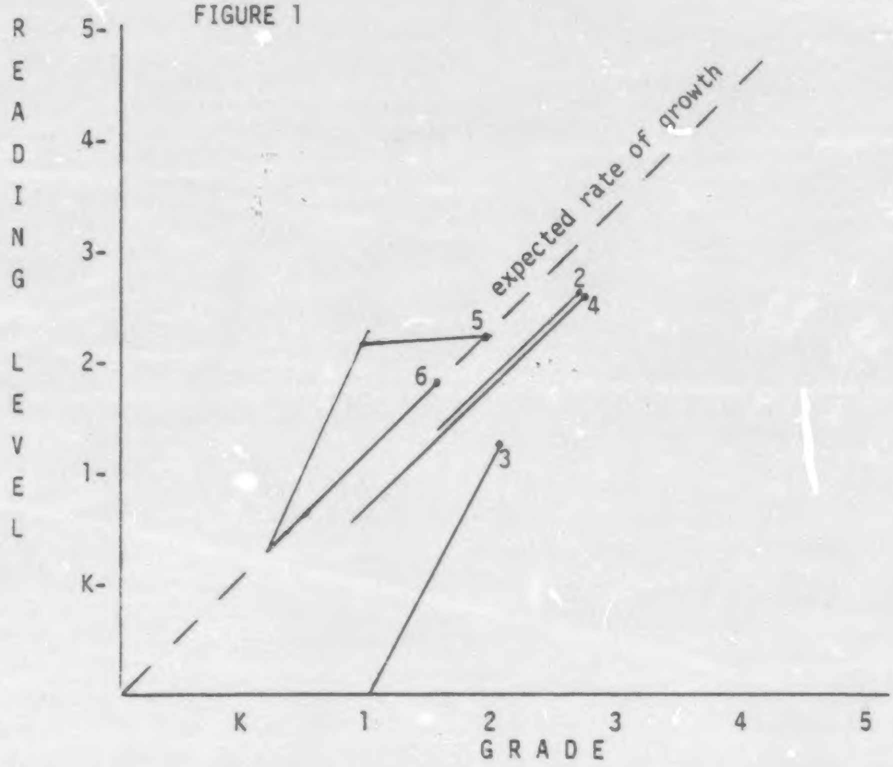
The purpose of this section is to provide a description of the procedures and results of the evaluation of the students' progress in school. During the planning of the evaluation, it was decided not to attempt to conduct a rigorous, "classical" type of evaluation. The court directed that all of the students be served; thus, it was not possible to establish treatment and comparison groups. That same directive and the short time span available prevented the use of the various time series designs.

It was decided to design the evaluation so that the students' progress in both 1978-79 and 1979-80 school years could be examined. Since this planning was done after the end of the 1978-79 school year, the evaluation had to be based upon information which existed at that time or upon the recall of 1978-79 events. It was decided to use a case study approach to the evaluation. This approach made it possible to collect the 1978-79 school year information in a systematic manner.

The case studies were conducted by the teachers of each of the students. A standard format was used for each of the studies. A student's 1978-79 teacher did the 1978-79 study; their 1979-80 teacher did the 1979-80 study. The building principal examined each of the studies for consistency. It should be noted that while much of the information in the 1978-79 case study was obtained through teachers' recall, there was substantial information (e.g., attendance records, results of curriculum embedded tests, miscellaneous tests, etc.) available from the regular school files. Copies of the case study reports are at the end of this section.

One of the primary desired outcomes of the judge's order was that the students would continue to make progress in their reading. The determination of whether this desired outcome was achieved was based on the rate at which the students progressed through the regular basal reading books used at King School. The information on the students' progress through the reading books and information on the student's attendance was obtained from case studies of the students completed by the students' teachers.

FIGURE 1



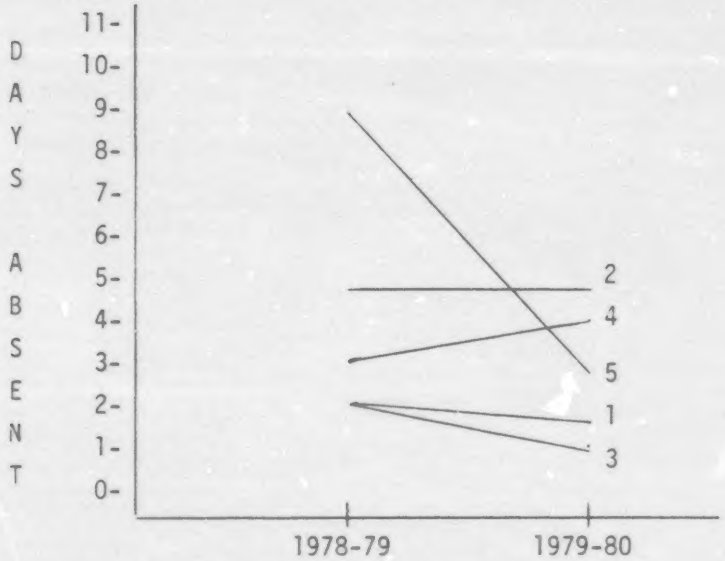
Notes: There were no useable data for student #1.
Data for student #2 were available for only 1979-80.
Student #6 left King School in February, 1980.

Figure 1 shows the students' growth in reading ability. The horizontal axis is the student's grade at the end of the school year. The vertical axis is the expected reading grade level in terms of the basal reading books which the school district ideally expects all students to be able to read at a given grade level.

It can be seen from Figure 1 that actual rate of growth in reading ability, over all the students, was approximately the same as the expected rate. Although, it should be noted that student #3's growth took place entirely in the 1979-80 school year.

Figure 2 shows the students' attendance record for 1978-79 and 1979-80 school years. It can be seen that, in general, the students' attendance records improved from 1978-79 to 1979-80. On the average, there were 1.3 fewer days absent in 1979-80 than in 1978-79.

FIGURE 2



Note: No data for student #6

Concerning the progress of the plaintiff children, it is necessary to caution that reading achievement is the result of a variety of interacting variables, "teachers taking into account black vernacular English" being only one. Notably, some of the plaintiff students seemed to make as much progress in 1978-79 (before in-service program) as they did in 1979-80 (during the in-service program). Moreover, the plethora of confounding variables such as media publicity, community discussion, and the court trial itself interfere with any clear inferential judgment about a specific cause or causes for the students' progress.

Therefore, while it may be reasonable to suspect that the in-service had some impact on the reading achievement of the plaintiff students, that impact cannot be demonstrated empirically or defended unequivocally. From the data, we can conclude that plaintiff students are making progress. We can conclude little more than that.

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade Four
1979-1980 - Grade Five

PUPIL: #1

BIRTHDATE: 1969

SUBMITTED: July, 1980

Student #1 has attended King School beginning with grade one. Each year he/she has been promoted to the next grade.

In grade two he/she was identified by E.P.P.C. as emotionally impaired and thus received Teacher Consultant services since February, 1977. He/she also received speech therapy for articulation and stuttering problems.

Progress Report for 1978-79

Prepared by Fourth Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

The San Diego Quick Assessment for reading placed him/her at about the first grade level. The Ann Arbor Inventory showed that he/she did not have mastery of final consonants, initial consonants, digraphs, syllables, blends. Word attack skills, comprehension, oral expression, and writing of his/her own experiences were also weak.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

The MacMillan R program was used beginning with level 9 and continuing through the year with the graduating level of this basal reading series. Ginn enrichment level 2 was used for word recognition skills. Dolch word picture cards, word papers and phrase cards were also used.

Speech therapy continued and the program was supported in the classroom as well.

The Teacher Consultant gave individual instruction and counseling.

We were aware that he/she had University of Michigan student tutors outside of school.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Student #1 enjoyed having a story read to him/her but did not attempt to read one himself/herself. He/she often chose to go to the "listening areas" to use a story record with a book and earphones. He/she enjoyed this very much.

He/she was often angry and shouted loudly to peers or at them if he/she was told a word by another child. He/she refused a peer tutor saying he/she did not want that person's help. He/she picked out story books that were too difficult. At other times he/she did not try to choose books saying that they are too hard or he/she just didn't want to read it.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

He/she completed Level 15 in the MacMillan R program.

Word attack skills and comprehension were improved, but still weak. He/she kept a journal. He/she was willing to try creative writing with the help of the teacher.

Became more positive about wanting to read. Brought comic books to school. He/she read an "easy reader" story to a small group. He/she chose to find information about an insect for science study by looking for it in the library.

He/she continued to enjoy story time and began to try to read a whole story alone even though he/she often asked for word help.

DIALECT FEATURES

I did not make an issue of his/her dialect.

When we studied a unit called Color of Man, we also spoke of the different languages of the world and talked about how words are used. We said "good morning" in many languages. We discussed how people in America differ in color, religion, and culture as well as speech.

We discussed pronunciation of words and ways things can be said noting short and low vowel sounds. Also discussed how various sayings were derived.

We discussed "standard" forms of English of the verb be and how we use it.

I corrected his/her non-standard form of be but with care in helping him/her know standard English as well.

During reading student #1 read orally to the teacher as the text appeared on the printed page. He/she discussed the pages or the story read in his/her spoken English.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 4 half days

He/she seemed healthy - was seldom absent. Once told me he/she liked being in this classroom and hoped I'd stay until he/she finished sixth grade.

His/her mother and I talked frequently during times that she was in the building working.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #1

Grade: Four

School: King

School Year: 1978-1979

Date Prepared: February, 1980

This diagnosis is based on general conversation in the classroom.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense		X	
Deletes Auxiliary	X		
Uses Invariant BE			X
Deletes BE		X	
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)		X	
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)		X	
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)			X
Deletes /r/			X
Deletes /l/ - old-- owed, bulk--bawk		X	
Varies With TH: /θ/-- /f/			
/0/-- /t/			
/Y/-- /a/			
Drops /g/ (off -ing)		X	
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative	X		
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		X	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation			
Deletes Plural			X
Deletes Possessive			X
Doesn't Know Form			

Progress Report for 1979-80

Prepared by Fifth Grade Teacher in May, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

On the Botel Student #1 scored 2-2 on Word Recognition; on the Silvaroli he/she scored 2.0, and on the Brigance Reading Inventory he/she scored 2.8 on word recognition and 3.0 on paragraphs.

Student #1 is a sight learner and is very weak in phonetic skills. He/she learns best by reading words in context. His/her comprehension skills are extremely low even at the literal level. He/she does use beginning blends to unlock words.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Student #1 was in a reading group with 13 other 5th and 6th grade students. The class was taught by a regular fifth grade teacher and the Language Arts Consultant. He/she used the Houghton Mifflin basal reader Tapestry and accompanying skillbook. In early spring he/she and the group began working with some high interest materials. They had a two-week unit on studying a newspaper and doing one of their own, read a variety of paperbacks from the PAL collection, had a two-week unit on folktales and a two week unit on viable skills such as reading and using recipes, using the telephone book, the dictionary, etc. They held oral discussions and had written assignments with all of these units.

Reading workbook and other exercises and assignments were modified for him/her.

He/she did individual work with the Teacher Consultant who gave both instruction and counseling to help him/her. She used the Spring Reading Skills Program, books I and II.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

He/she lacked confidence in his/her reading ability. His/her attitude was negative and he/she had a low frustration level to the point that he/she did not try. He/she often refused to complete reading assignments. He/she was easily distracted and read nothing on his/her own.

By the end of the year he/she showed more confidence in his/her reading ability and sometimes volunteered to read aloud in the regular classroom. Although he/she did little independent reading, he/she did enjoy the PAL paperbacks which were assigned in his/her reading class. He/she also liked to look at books which were well illustrated.

Although he/she is learning to control his/her anger, he/she still needed help throughout the year in developing acceptable playground behavior. The grudges he/she fostered sometimes interfered with his/her learning.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

Student #1 continued to have difficulty decoding new words, but he/she was able to do it more easily. He/she still relies heavily on context clues and frequently has problems with comprehension. His/her reading vocabulary is increasing.

He/she showed improvement in coming to class on time and ready to work. He/she also improved in his/her ability to stay on task. The quality of his/her work improved.

He/she will attend summer school in 1980.

DIALECT FEATURES

Student #1 has difficulty expressing himself/herself in his/her own dialect. His/her vocabulary is limited and he/she sometimes stutters when excited or under stress. His/her facial expressions convey a great deal of what he/she is feeling.

His/her linguistic differences were accepted.

A conversational journal was maintained between him/her and the reading teacher.

Formal and informal language was contrasted in writing lessons.

Also contrasted were differences in spelling between standard and dialect language.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 3 half days.

He/she has an excellent attendance record.

His/her mother and I talk frequently about his progress and behavior.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #

School: King

Grade: Five

School Year: 1979-1980

Date Prepared: May, 1980

Diagnosis based on consultation with Language Arts Consultant and general conversation in the classroom.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense	X		
Deletes Auxiliary	X		
Uses Invariant BE		X	
Deletes BE	X		
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)	X		
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)		X	
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)	X		
Deletes /r/			X
Deletes /l/ - old--owed, bulk-- bawk		X	
Varies With Th: /θ/-- /f/			X
/θ/-- /t/		X	
/X/-- /a/			X
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative	X		
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form	X		
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation	X		
Deletes Plural	X		
Deletes Possessive	X		
Doesn't Know Form	X		

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade Three
1979-1980 - Grade Four

Student #2

BIRTHDATE: 1970

SUBMITTED: July, 1980

Student #2 has attended King School for four years beginning here in kindergarten. He/she was promoted to the next grade each year.

An E.P.P.C. was held May 9, 1977, near the end of his/her first grade year, and he/she was determined to be emotionally impaired and eligible for support services of the Teacher Consultant. He/she received instruction and counseling from this special education teacher at King School.

In December 18, 1979 an E.P.P.C. was held and it was determined that he/she was no longer eligible for special education services. His/her behavior in the classroom was appropriate and his/her achievement test scores are currently in line with his/her ability.

Progress Report for 1978-1979

Prepared by Third Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

In October, 1978 he/she was tested by the Language Arts Consultant using the Ann Arbor Inventory. On Word Recognition he/she scores 100% at the pre-primer level, 85% at the primer level, and 80% at the first grade level. His/her instructional level was estimated as second grade. He/she knew a small list of basic sight words and seemed to learn best by sight recognition. He/she showed weaknesses in knowledge of blends, initial and final consonants, vowels and needed help in increasing his/her basic sight vocabulary.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

After reviewing with some first grade readers we started with Far and Away (2-1) of the American Book Company basal series. This was a continuation of the series that he/she had been using. When he/she completed this about mid-year, he/she worked in Gold and Silver (2-2), the next book in the same series. The accompanying skillbooks were used for both of these basal readers. A copy of Gold and Silver was sent home so he/she could reread stories at home that he/she had studied at school.

A variation of the experience story method was used--one in which he/she could draw a picture or pictures and later dictate a story about them.

Student #2 met with the Teacher Consultant one-half hour daily for the first half of the year and three times weekly the second half. Among other materials used by the Teacher Consultant were the Ginn Vowels and Variants, SRA word attack skill kits and experience stories.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

When Student #2 was in a good mood, he/she got very involved, put forth a lot of effort and did well. When he/she was not in a good mood, he/she got very little from the lesson, did not participate or accept help from me or other adults. Sometimes he/she bickered with and put down other children in his/her reading group. He/she did not make much use of the open library to select books to read or look at. He/she did use sound filmstrips and story records which were provided in the room. Gradually, although his/her interest varied, he/she did begin to make more steady progress and feel good about it. He/she prepared some selections which he/she read to kindergarten children.

Emotionally, Student #2 frequently became upset and found it difficult or impossible to participate or accept help. Sometimes he/she got angry and left the room. This continued throughout the year.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

Student #2 completed the 2-1 and 2-2 basal texts and is ready to begin the 3-1 next fall. He/she has increased his/her sight vocabulary, ability to decode words, and comprehension. It is still difficult for him/her to work independently on skills lessons.

His/her scores on the California Achievement Test administered in May, 1979 are:

Reading Vocabulary	2.5	Spelling	4.8
Comprehension	2.0	Language Mechanics	2.8
Total Reading	1.9	Language Expression	2.6
		Total Language	2.7

He/she has begun to realize he/she is learning and making progress. He/she seemed to be at a point where he/she can begin to make real progress and feel good about it. He/she still was not doing much independent reading.

DIALECT FEATURES

As they occurred, I showed differences in spelling and pronunciations of some words that might cause confusion or misunderstanding for children in the group, commenting that they were words that might be pronounced differently by people in different parts of the country. Sometimes, I called attention to endings, noting that the endings may indicate that something had already happened, for instance, walked or played.

I did not know all of the linguistic terms in 1978-79 but I was aware that Student #2 spoke some elements of Black Vernacular English. I have not made a diagnosis of the specific feature.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 10 half days

His/her mother worked in the building so it was natural to have frequent communication with her about his/her progress.

Progress Report for 1979-1980

Prepared by Fourth Grade Teacher in May, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

The Ann Arbor Inventory was administered in October, 1979 and indications from this were that his/her estimated independent reading level was 2-2 and his/her instructional level was at grade three. Further instruction and practice were recommended to improve his/her skills with final consonants, some long and short vowel sounds, alphabetical order, prefixes, and dictionary skills.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

One of the basal readers from the MacMillan R (level 13) was selected for reading and the accompanying skill practice book was used with him/her in the fall. She continued with other readers in this series throughout the year.

Other materials used were Ginn Word Enrichment level 3, Scott-Foresman Beginning Dictionary Skills, duplicated materials from the Charles Merrill Company, the Boning Kit for punctuation, and Scholastic Skills book for writing.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Student #2 seemed anxious to read and learn. He/she was interested in reading stories and liked to read to others. He/she enjoyed comics, magazines, and library books.

Occasionally, he/she became upset when he/she was asked to participate in some group activity. He/she often shouted that he/she wasn't going to do that or that he/she didn't care.

As the year progressed, he/she seemed to feel more confident in his/her work and was not so easily upset. Using a technique discussed with the Teacher Consultant and his/her mother, he/she followed the practice of writing a note asking, telling, or explaining about a given situation or feeling that was troubling him/her.

In the spring, he/she still had occasional outburts but these were fewer than early in the year. When they did occur they did seem to interfere with his/her learning.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

On a Silvaroli Reading Inventory giver on April 23, 1980 it was estimated that his/her independent reading level was at grade 3 and his/her instructional level at grade 4. He/she showed good knowledge of vowel digraphs, structural endings, syllable, dictionary entries and guide words, prefixes and suffixes, capitalization and end of sentence punctuation, homonyms, and opposites. Story comprehension for main idea, details, and sequence was good. He/she could follow oral directions and know how to use the table of contents and the index. He/she used his/her spelling skills in written work and wrote legibly with good spacing and correct letter formation.

Reenforcement is indicated for subject/verb agreement, nouns, and pronouns, synonyms, accented syllables, written direction, sentence structure, and for writing sentences with more details.

In September, 1979, Dr. Krebs, school psychologist gave a battery of individual tests to update our diagnostic data. The following summary statement was made by Dr. Krebs.

"On the achievement test (Student #2) made gains from the previous testing (5/9/77). His/her reading on the Wide Range gained almost 2 years. (He/she) is currently scoring about a year below grade placement on reading words out of context. Reading of Oral Paragraphs is also at beginning 3rd grade level with comprehension at the same level. (He/she) read both 1st and 2nd grade selections with only one error but made 5 errors on the third grade paragraph. (He/she) read the first two grade levels fairly fast but slowed down after that and read word-by-word."

By the end of the year he/she had become more independent in his/her work. He/she enjoyed reading or listening to others read. He/she shared information about books he/she read with small groups.

DIALECT FEATURES

Student #2 heard the correct sounds of words and understood other people's ideas in discussions.

In helping him/her I often discussed words found in a story and their meaning. I introduced new words by writing them on the Board and pronouncing them with the reading group. We discussed syllables and pronounced the words according to the syllables saying beginning consonants and with vowels we tried the long and short sounds. We decided whether a word is recognizable from the basic sight or sound analysis. Reading games were also used.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 10 half days

His/her mother and I talked frequently during times when she was working in the building. She attended the E.P.P.C. in December.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #2
Grade: Four

School: King
School Year: 1979-1980
Date Prepared: May, 1980

This diagnosis is based on classroom observation and consultation with the Language Arts Consultant.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement		X	
Uses Inappropriate Tense		X	
Deletes Auxilary		X	
Uses Invariant BE			X
Deletes BE			
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)		X	
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)		X	
PHONOLGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/			X
Deletes /l/ - old-- owed, bulk--bawk			X
Varies With TH: /θ/-- /f/		X	
/Θ/-- /t/			X
/ð/-- /a/			X
Drops /g/ (off -ing)		X	
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative		X	
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		X	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation			X
Deletes Plural			X
Deletes Possessive		X	
Doesn't Know Form		X	

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade One
1979-1980 - Grade Two

PUPIL: #3

BIRTHDATE: 1972

SUBMITTED: July, 1980

Student #3 attended Ann Arbor Pre-School in 1976-1977 at Lakewood School where that program was housed.

In 1977-1978 he/she was enrolled in kindergarten at King School.

He/she was promoted and enrolled in grade one at King for the 1978-1979 school year.

During 1979-1980 he/she was in grade two and was promoted to grade 3 in June, 1980.

He/she has been identified as Learning Disabled and, therefore, eligible for support services of the special education program through the assistance of the Teacher Consultant at King School. This service has been provided since the spring of his/her first grade year. Confidential material is on file.

Prepared by First Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

Student #3 was at a pre-readiness stage. He/she knew no letter names or sounds. When he/she tried to write letters, he/she frequently made them reversed or upside down. He/she had difficulty naming pictures and common objects. Although he/she talked, it was difficult to understand him/her because of his/her severe articulation problems of speech. He/she found it difficult to sit still even for short periods and had a very short attention span. Films did not capture his/her attention.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Pictures, reading games, alphabet cards and the readiness text Getting Ready to Read of Houghton Mifflin's basal series were used.

Praise for his/her effort and encouragement were given often. Opportunities for him/her to talk were provided and he/she was encouraged. Speech therapy was continued. His/her mother was given suggestions for helping him/her and a copy of his/her reading text for use at home.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

He/she showed little interest in books, films and other visual learning materials. Sometimes he/she fell asleep during films.

During the year his/her general behavior improved and he/she related better to his/her classmates.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

By the end of his/her first grade year he/she had learned most of the alphabet and the sound/symbol relationships of consonants and vowels. He/she was just beginning to earn the first vocabulary words in the Getting Ready to Read book.

DIALECT FEATURES

The severity of this student's disarticulation problem made it very difficult to determine this during first grade. No diagnostic chart is included.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 4 half days

His/her mother worked in the building daily. Teacher-parent conferences occurred frequently in addition to regular conferences.

Progress Report for 1979-1980

Prepared by Second Grade Teacher in May, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

In September, 1979, he/she was tested on the Botel. He/she was a non-reader. In October he/she recognized 5% of the words on the Pre- Pre-Primer list of this test. The assessment showed that he/she could match letters but did not know all the letter names. He/she knew a few of the initial and final consonants and was weak in all other skill areas of the Ann Arbor Inventory. He/she was just beginning to learn how to listen and concentrate for short periods of time. He/she appeared eager and wanted to participate.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

The Houghton Mifflin basal reading program and accompanying skill books were used. He/she completed the three pre-primers (Rockets, Surprises, Footprints) in March, 1980. In May he/she had completed Honeycomb.

In addition, he/she used word cards made for him/her, special seatwork prepared for him/her, the Talking Alphabet word and picture cards, and easy-to-read books.

The Teacher Consultant met with him/her for one half hour daily working to support the classroom reading program and strengthen basic reading skills. She helped to provide special word cards and seatwork for him/her.

The Speech Therapist worked with him/her for two twenty-minute periods each week.

A student teacher assigned to this class helped to provide him/her with extra practice and involved him/her with a group doing two plays.

Several days each week he/she went to the neighborhood community center after school.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

As he/she began to experience success he/she seemed to enjoy reading. During library periods he/she was helped to select appropriate books. As the year went on he/she developed good attitudes and work habits in reading. He/she enjoyed his/her reading group and by the end of the year began to see himself/herself as a "reader." He/she often asked to read stories aloud to the class and did so on several occasions. He/she continued to need guidance in the selection of library books and books for free reading times.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

In May the Language Arts Consultant administered the Ann Arbor Inventory. He/she recognized 85% of the words at the pre-primer level and 60% at the primer level. He/she showed strength in letter matching, letter names, auditory discrimination, initial and final consonants, consonant digraphs and blends. His/her reading level was judged to be primer.

In September, 1979, the Language Arts Consultant administered the Brigance Inventory and found student #3 to be a non-reader. He/she scored 0 on Word Recognition and 0/250 on basic sight words.

In May, 1980, she administered the Brigance Inventory. This time he/she scored 1.9 on Word Recognition and 150/250 basic sight words. On paragraphs, his/her instructional level was assessed as grade 1.

In his/her second grade class work he/she completed Honeycomb and associated testing showed that he/she needs work on some clusters, some phonograms, ing and ed inflections, compound words, and drawing conclusions. He/she will have a book for practice during the summer and will attend summer school.

DIALECT FEATURES

Student #3 tended to read exactly what was printed on the page. He/she was able to communicate with everyone and was understood.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 2 half days

He/she was tardy two times

His/her health appears to be excellent.

Student #3's mother attended two scheduled conferences. As she worked in the building every day she took this opportunity to stop in the classroom frequently to discuss his/her progress.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #3

Grade: Two

School: King

School Year: 1979-1980

Date Prepared: May, 1980

Based upon classroom observation and consultation with the Language Arts Consultant

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense	X		
Deletes Auxiliary		X	
Uses Invariant BE	X		
Deletes BE		X	
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)	X		
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)	X		
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/			X
Deletes /l/ - old--owed, bulk-- bawk			
Varies With TH: /C/-- /f/			X
/O/-- /t/			X
/X/-- /a/			X
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative		X	
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form			X
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation	X		
Deletes Plural		X	
Deletes Possessive		X	
Doesn't Know Form			X

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade Two
1979-1980 - Grade Three

Student #4

BIRTHDATE: 1970

SUBMITTED: July, 1980

With his/her mother's agreement Student #4 was retained in grade two for the 1978-1979 school year. He/she had a different teacher at his/her mother's request.

In 1979-1980 he/she was in third grade and was promoted to grade four in June, 1980.

He/she received Speech Therapy from the fall of 1977 through June, 1979. It was determined that he/she did not need to continue in 1979-1980.

He/she was evaluated by the school psychologist and an E.P.P.C. was held in February, 1977 and another in April, 1979. He/she was not and is not eligible for special education.

Progress Report for 1978-1979

Prepared by Second Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

On the San Diego Reading Assessment given in September, 1978, he/she was shown to be reading at the primer level. He/she showed knowledge of basal words; initial and final consonants; digraphs ck, ch, sh, th, sm, fl, sc, fr; phonograms et, an, at, op; ending est, er, s, ed, ing; plural endings; and compound words. Indications were that he/she needed more work on clusters pr, gr, br, cr, tr, pl, st, thr, str; long and short vowel sounds; inflections ed and ing; and suffixes ly, ful; and noting correct sequence.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Beginning with the third pre-primer for review, he/she moved on to Honeycomb of the Houghton Mifflin basal series. Accompanying skill books were used. In June, he/she had completed Cloverleaf.

Occasionally, he/she needed help with decoding words. Reminding him/her of the patterning system and the sounds that the clusters and vowels make seemed to help.

During daily creative writing, he/she was given spelling instruction and help in sentence structure. Words were listed in his/her personal dictionary, He/she scored well on weekly spelling tests and often chose to learn bonus words.

He/she worked with the Language Arts Consultant twice a week until the spring of 1979. We were aware that he/she was also receiving outside tutoring from a neighbor friend.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

During listening activities, Student #4 was alert and cooperative. He/she gave good attention during formal reading group times. Frequently, he/she chose books at our Open Library time for silent reading, encyclopedia research, games, puzzles, and filmstrips to look at and read. He/she checked out a library book every week to take home and sometimes he/she did this twice a week. He/she had several opportunities to read his/her library book aloud to the class.

He/she always appeared interested in his/her work, was a willing worker, and showed pride in his/her accomplishments. He/she was given praise and encouragement.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

The Houghton Mifflin Management System was used throughout the 1978-1979 school year. Also, in February, 1979 the Ann Arbor Inventory and the Silvaroli were given showing that he/she had scored 75% at the primer level.

Assessment at the end of the year indicated that he/she knew basal words, initial and final consonants, inflections, clusters, vowel sounds, common syllables, contractions, and could choose correct meanings. Further instruction and practice was indicated for vowel sounds of a, e, u; consonant digraphs; noting correct sequence; drawing conclusions; and retention of words learned.

By the end of the year he/she had successfully completed Cloverleaf and the practice work associated with it.

DIALECT FEATURES

When dialect was expressed in his/her writing, the differences between his/her dialect and Standard English was pointed out and comparisons made in giving him/her individual help. If a second draft of his/her story was needed, he/she was asked to make the change to Standard English. Often his/her stories were read aloud by the teacher or him/her without alterations.

He/she has good ability to read what was on the printed page.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 6 half days

He/she was never tardy.

He/she appeared healthy. His/her vision was checked on 3/29/79 and found to be within the normal limits.

His/her mother worked in the building every day so we saw each other daily and had frequent conferences about his/her progress.

Progress Report for 1979-1980

Prepared by Third Grade Teacher in May, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

In the fall the Botel Word Recognition and Word Opposites tests were given and in October the Silvaroli Word Recognition and Comprehension test was given. His/her independent reading level was assessed as first grade and his/her instructional level as second grade. The Ann Arbor Inventory showed that he/she had mastery of letter matching, letter names, auditory discrimination, initial consonants, final consonants, consonant digraphs, and blends.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

He/she began with the basal reader Sunburst of the Houghton Mifflin series. During the year he/she completed Tapestry and also a 2-2 reader from the Ginn series. With these he/she had instruction in skills and practice in the accompanying workbooks.

Supplementary reading materials he/she used were from S.R.A. Reading Lab, Scholastic paperbacks, Invitations to Personal Reading from Scott Foresman's library collection, and storybooks from the library.

During the entire school year he/she received special instruction twice a week for thirty minutes each from the Language Arts Consultant.

Student #4 was given individual help in spelling and sentence structure for creative writing. Words he/she needed were written for him/her in his/her personal dictionary. Student #4 did some editing of sentence structure on his/her papers and was able to improve his/her sentence structure from a first draft to the second.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Throughout the school year he/she has been a very willing participant in reading instruction in his/her classroom and with the Language Arts Consultant. He/she has been most cooperative, attentive, and interested during reading instruction and has always been motivated to complete assignments. He/she enjoyed using the Open Library almost daily for browsing, checking out books and using such library materials as games, puzzles, and filmstrips. For independent reading, he/she liked to check out Dr. Seuss books and books about his/her favorite sports--boxing and racing.

He/she was always cooperative about joining his/her reading group on a daily basis and never needed reminders about the times of his/her lessons with the Language Arts Consultant.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

On the Botel Inventory given in January his/her independent reading level was estimated as first grade and his/her instructional level as second grade. In April on the Dolch Basic Word List he/she knew 160 words of 200.

In May the Silvaroli Word Recognition and Comprehension estimated his/her independent level at first grade and his/her instructional level at second grade.

Tests associated with the Houghton Mifflin series show his/her strengths to be in word recognition, literal comprehension, and interpretive thinking and his/her weaknesses to be in word attack skills. He/she completed Tapestry of this series.

I recommend that reading instruction next year emphasize the use of contextual clues and the cloze procedure. The Ginn or MacMillan series might be used as a basal program for him/her. High interest materials such as Spring and sports readers from Bowmar might interest and encourage him/her.

He/she will attend the 1980 summer school.

DIALECT FEATURES

During reading instruction, Student #4 was helped in decoding new words by sounding out the words and going over the letter sounds. Unfamiliar words and ideas were explained using words he/she understood. His/her dialect pronunciations were accepted and his/her reading was not interrupted. Models in standard English occurred in normal teaching conversation.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 8 half days

He/she passed the vision test given on March 25, 1980

His/her mother attended the October parent conference and came to the Open House in April. I talked with her on the phone in November and saw her briefly in the spring when she came to school with the new baby.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #4
School: King

Grade: Three
School Year: 1979-1980

Date Prepared: May, 1980

This is based on classroom observation and consultation with the Language Arts Consultant.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement		X	
Uses Inappropriate Tense		X	
Deletes Auxilary	X		
Uses Invariant BE		X	
Deletes BE		X	
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)	X		
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)	X		
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/		X	
Deletes /l/ - old--owed, bulk-- bawk		X	
Varies With TH: /θ/-- /f/		X	
/θ/-- /t/		X	
/X/-- /a/		X	
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative		X	
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		X	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation		X	
Deletes Plural		X	
Deletes Possessive	X		
Doesn't Know Form		X	

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade One
1979-1980 - Grade Two

PUPIL: Student #5

BIRTHDATE: 1972

SUBMITTED: July, 1980

Student #5 attended Ann Arbor pre-school in 1976-1977 at Lakewood School where that program was housed.

In 1977-1978 he/she was enrolled in kindergarten at King but missed about one month due to an accident at home.

He/she was promoted to grade one for the 1978-1979 school year.

During 1979-1980 he/she was in grade two and was promoted to grade 3 in June, 1980.

He/she received speech therapy each year but will be re-evaluated in September, 1980.

Progress Report for 1978-1979

Prepared by First Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

Student #5 knew all of the letters of the alphabet although he/she sometimes confused s with c. He/she understood the readiness skills of moving from left to right, rhyming patterns, and some sounds of consonants.

He/she was ready to begin reading, picked up sight vocabulary rapidly and showed good retention. He/she had fairly good word attack skills.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

In sequence he/she read the first three pre-primers: Rockets, Surprises, and Footprints. He/she also read three pre-primers of an earlier edition of the same publisher: Tigers, Lions, and Dinosaurs. The accompanying skill books were used for instruction and practice. Following these he/she completed Honeycomb and Cloverleaf and the accompanying skill books by June, 1979. All of these are in the Houghton Mifflin basal reading series.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

He/she had a very good attitude toward reading. He/she was attentive and always willing to read aloud in the group, but became impatient when another's turn came. He/she had a tendency to rush through reading material and was also careless about his/her skill book work. During designated quiet reading times, he/she chose beginning reading books and texts from other reading series. His/her attention span was short.

He/she received help from an adult neighborhood friend who tutored him/her in her home three or four times per week for half an hour before school. When it was evident that he/she was reading well in school, the tutor worked with him/her on penmanship.

On the whole he/she had a very good attitude toward reading, was always well behaved at reading group time, seemed interested in learning how to read, and was proud of his/her reading achievements. He/she also had good work habits and always completed his/her assignments during seat work time although he/she had to be cautioned to work carefully and not rush through the assignment.

Student #5 began writing his/her own sentences about February, 1979 and eventually wrote his/her own reports and stories based on information presented in social studies and science lessons each day. He/she asked for spelling help as necessary. Each week he/she selected appropriate library books which he/she took home.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

By the end of the year he/she had very good sight vocabulary retention and good word attack skills. He/she knew sounds of consonants, digraphs, consonant blends and some of the long vowel sounds.

He/she had trouble with pronoun referents in skill book exercises and some weakness in comprehension.

On the Botel Reading Inventory Word Recognition Test given in April, 1979 he/she showed recognition of

100% of the words at the	pre-primer level
100%	primer level
85%	first reader level

In June he/she completed the first reader Cloverleaf and accompanying skill book.

DIALECT FEATURES

His/her pronunciation was accepted at the time of oral reading. When he/she made the possessive "s" deletion, I might at times ask him/her to read the sentence again. Then he/she usually did his/her own code switching and added the possessive or plural "s". An example of his/her awareness of, and ability, in code switching was that he/she would immediately interrupt and correct a classmade in his/her reading group when he/she used "axed" for "asked". At times he/she might impatiently add a deleted "s" to her oral reading.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 18 half days

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #5

Grade: One

School: King

School Year: 1978-1979

Date Prepared: February, 1980

Diagnosis is based on recollection about general conversation in the classroom.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense	X		
Deletes Auxiliary		X	
Uses Invariant BE	X		
Deletes BE	X		
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)	X		
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)	X		
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/	X		
Deletes /l/ - old-- owed, bulk--bawk	X		
Varies With TH: /O/-- /f/	X		
/O/-- /t/			
/X/-- /a/			
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative	X		
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		I don't remember	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation			
Deletes Plural	X		
Deletes Possessive	X		
Doesn't Know Form			

Progress Report for 1979-1980

Prepared by Second Grade Teacher in May, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

He/she reviewed Cloverleaf skills and vocabulary at the beginning of the year as had been recommended by his/her first grade teacher. This was easily accomplished because he/she was eager to learn and his/her attention span was good. In September, on the Botel, he/she scored 80% in word recognition at the 1-2 level. He/she moved quickly into the next reader in the sequence, Sunburst.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

During the second grade year he/she worked in the basal reader and accompanying skill book of the Houghton Mifflin basal reading series completing Sunburst in March. After this he/she worked in the Ginn Company How It Is Nowadays and the American Book Company Gold and Silver to increase vocabulary and strengthen skills and comprehension.

Assessment on the Botel and the Ann Arbor Inventory showed that he/she knew initial and final consonants, digraphs, consonant blends. In December he/she took the test accompanying Cloverleaf and showed that he/she knew basal words, clusters, phonograms, the vowel sounds of e, o, u, endings, common syllables, and contractions. It also indicated that he/she needed more work on the long and short sounds of the vowels a and i and work on sequence, and drawing conclusions.

During daily creative writing experiences he/she was given spelling words for his/her personal dictionary and help with punctuation skills. On spelling tests he/she did well and eagerly volunteered to learn bonus and challenge lists of spelling words. He/she also learned to proofread and correct his/her own written assignments.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Student #5 is a good oral reader and appeared to feel successful. He/she chose reading as an independent activity and selected books from the classroom library, including books related to social studies and science units. Each week he/she took home a library book of an appropriate reading level. He/she worked carefully in his/her skills book with occasional reminders "not to rush." During various listening activities and games, he/she showed good attention and concentration on the tasks involved.

He/she did not receive any additional help beyond that [illegible] his/her classroom teacher and a student teacher. He/she did go to the neighborhood community center several days after school.

In summary, he/she had good behavior and work habits and made good progress.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

Student #5 read well on a 2-2 to 3-1 level by the end of the year having completed four texts and several skills books. His/her strengths included sight vocabulary, clusters, long and short vowels, syllables, punctuation, phonograms, following directions, noting details, endings, inflections, and alphabetical order. He/she needs reinforcement in only one area, that of classifying. In April he/she scored 181 out of a possible 190 on the Sunburst test.

By the end of the year he/she proofread his/her papers and made his/her own corrections before turning them in.

In my judgment he/she is ready to begin reading in September with the Tapestry, the basal reader of the Houghton Mifflin series.

DIALECT FEATURES

During formal reading instruction periods, he/she tended to read exactly and accurately the vocabulary in the text. His/her pronunciation was accepted at oral reading time. He/she could easily code switch if asked to read the same sentence again. He/she seemed to understand the printed page.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 6 half days

His/her health appears to be excellent.

His/her mother attended parent conferences and we discussed his/her progress frequently on the telephone.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #5

Grade: Two

School: King

School Year: 1979-1980

Date Prepared: May, 1980

Diagnosis based on general conversation in the classroom. He/she was verbally active in the classroom and enjoyed participating in discussion periods.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense	X		
Deletes Auxiliary		X	
Uses Invariant BE	X		
Deletes BE	X		
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)	X		
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)	X		
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/	X		
Deletes /l/ - old-- owed, bulk-- hawk	X		
Varies With Th: /θ/-- /f/		X	
/θ/-- /t/		X	
/ð/-- /a/		X	
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative	X		
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		X	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation		X	
Deletes Plural	X		
Deletes Possessive	X		
Doesn't Know Form	X		

INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

1978-1979 - Grade One
1979-1980 - Grade Two

Student #6

BIRTHDATE: 1972

Submitted: July, 1980

Student #6 was enrolled in kindergarten at King for the 1977-1978 school year and was promoted to first grade in June, 1978.

During 1978-1979 he/she was in first grade at King and was promoted in June, 1979.

In September, 1979 he/she began second grade at King and continued in attendance until mid-February, 1980 when he/she and his/her family moved from the King attendance area.

Progress Report for 1978-1979

Prepared by First Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

After a brief review period of alphabet letters and readiness phonic skills, he/she was ready for the beginning reading program. He/she knew the letters of the alphabet and the sounds of most of the consonant blends and digraphs and seemed interested in learning how to read.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

"Getting Ready to Read" was used to introduce the 16 words essential to the beginning of the first pre-primer.

Then he/she continued in sequence with Pre-primer I (Rockets), Pre-primer II (Surprises) and Pre-primer III (Footprints). In addition, he/she read three Pre-primers of an earlier edition of this series. (Tigers, Lions, and Dinosaurs). He/she also completed the skills workbook that accompanies the Pre-primers.

Following this he/she completed the Primer, Honeycomb and the accompanying skills workbook and toward the end of the year began the book Cloverleaf.

All of the materials named above are published by Houghton Mifflin.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Student #6 had a good attitude toward reading, listened attentively and learned the new vocabulary and skills as they were presented. He/she was well behaved during the meeting time with four other students in his/her reading group. He/she had special help from a volunteer tutor at the beginning of the school year and until it was evident that he/she was reading satisfactorily with his/her group.

He/she was always proud of his/her ability and accomplishments in reading. If he/she had extra time, he/she seemed to enjoy selecting an easy reading book from the classroom collection. He/she made good library book selections every week and tried to select books he/she could read to take home.

About February, 1979 he/she began composing and writing some of his/her own sentences. Then, almost daily, he/she wrote stories and reports of his/her own based on the Social Studies and Science units we were studying using information studied in class each day.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

He/she completed the Primer Honeycomb and accompanying skill book with a good understanding of all the material covered.

Botel Reading Inventory A - Word Recognition given April 30, 1979 showed recognition of

85% of the words at the	Pre-primer level
70%	Primer (1-1) level
50%	First Reader (1-2) level

He/she had a good sight vocabulary and retention, good word attack skills, and knew the sound of consonants, consonant blends, and digraphs. He/she had good comprehension and good oral reading expression. He/she worked carefully in his/her skills book. He/she had no apparent weaknesses at his/her level of reading.

DIALECT FEATURES

He/she was quiet in class and gave brief responses to questions. He/she did not read with any dialect deletions or substitutions. He/she was an accurate oral reader.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 43 half days

Student #6 had some absences due to colds or other illness. He/she had frequent absences and tardiness due to other causes. Because he/she was often 2 or 2½ hours late in the morning, he/she missed lessons with his/her reading group and other important instructional material and presentation.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

A3

Student #6

Grade: One

School: King

School Year: 1978-1979

Date Prepared: February, 1980

This diagnosis is based on recollections of general conversation in the classroom.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement		X	
Uses Inappropriate Tense			X
Deletes Auxilary			X
Uses Invariant BE		X	
Deletes BE		X	
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)		X	
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)		X	
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), aroun(d)		X	
Deletes /r/		X	X
Deletes /l/ - old -- owed, hulk--- hawk		X	
Varies With TH: /θ/-- /f/		X	
/θ/-- /t/			
/ð/-- /a/			
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative		X	
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form		X	
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			
Uses Left Dislocation			
Deletes Plural			X
Deletes Possessive		X	
Doesn't Know Form			

Progress Report for 1979-1980

Prepared by Second Grade Teacher in February, 1980

INITIAL ASSESSMENT

The Silvaroli and the Ann Arbor Skills Inventory were given at the beginning of the year to obtain an estimated reading level and to assess his/her strengths and weaknesses of word analysis skills. This indicated that his/her highest independent reading level was at the primer (1-1) and that his/her instructional level was at the first grade level. He/she showed some weakness in auditory discrimination.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

In September and October he/she reviewed the primer Honeycomb with use of the skillbook and word cards to supplement. From October through December, he/she read in the first reader Cloverleaf and used the accompanying skill book and word cards. In January and early February he/she read in Secrets and used the accompanying skill book. All of these books are in the Houghton Mifflin basal reading program.

With all pupils I provided these kinds of language experiences:

> Word cards with special emphasis on present and past tense: see-saw, talk-talked, ask-asked (t)
>
> Emphasized the use of subject and verb agreement: he is, she is, they are, etc.
>
> Emphasized the use of s and es to denote singular and plural
>
> Discussed the use of consonant clusters at the end of words: lost, cold, friend, etc.

The language arts consultant used a variety of games and activities, both commercial and teacher made to provide him/her with training in auditory discrimination. She also supplemented his/her program with practice in word recognition using the cloze procedure and helping him/her with structural analysis (inflectional endings, contractions, compound words, root words, etc.). Special attention was given to those features not common in his/her dialect. She worked with him/her twice a week and as he/she made progress she changed to once per week.

READING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Student #6 enjoyed reading in a group but rarely chose to read in his/her free time. He/she did not prepare his/her assignments by reading silently before coming to reading group unless the teacher insisted. He/she liked working in the skillbooks but tended to work for quantity rather than quality. His/her attention span during reading time was very short. His/her oral reading and word attack was good. An interesting thing about his/her attitude toward reading was that one day he/she would be really interested and want to do a good job and the next day he/she did not seem to care one way or another. He/she responded to affection and praise and rewards such as a sticker or a hug from his/her teacher. He/she enjoyed reading games.

FINAL ASSESSMENT

When he/she moved in February, he/she was reading at a 2-1 level.

DIALECT FEATURES

In reading orally and discussing the story during the reading lesson, Student #6 read in his/her dialect. As teacher (classroom and language arts consultant) we kept the emphasis on whether or not he/she could identify the words correctly, if he/she knew their meanings, and if he/she comprehended what he/she read. The atmosphere was comfortable and he/she was encouraged to participate.

ATTENDANCE

Absence: 33 half days from September 5, 1979 through February 13, 1980

Tardy: 7 times.

DIAGNOSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS

Student #6

School: King

Grade: Two

School Year: 1979-1980

Date Prepared: February, 1980

He/she has features identified as characteristics of Black English.

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
VERB FORMATION			
Doesn't Make Subject-Verb Agreement	X		
Uses Inappropriate Tense		X	
Deletes Auxiliary	X		
Uses Invariant BE	X		
Deletes BE			X
Deletes Third Person Singular Ending (-s)		X	
Deletes Past Tense Ending (-ed)	X		
PHONOLOGY			
Reduces Consonant Cluster - agains(t), around(d)	X		
Deletes /r/		X	
Deletes /l/ - old-- owed, hulk---hawk		X	
Varies With TH: /θ/-- /f/	X		
/ð/-- /t/		X	
/ð/-- /a/			X
Drops /g/ (off -ing)	X		
OTHER			
Uses Double Negative	X		
Uses Inappropriate Pronoun Form			X
Uses Inappropriate Question Formation			X
Uses Left Dislocation			
Deletes Plural		X	
Deletes Possessive		X	
Doesn't Know Form			

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